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Everyman's United Nations

Office of Public Information

Everyman's United Nations



*The Structure, Functions and
Work of the Organization*

*and its Related Agencies during the Years 1945-1962
and a United Nations Chronology for 1963*

Seventh Edition

UNITED NATIONS • NEW YORK

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Foreword

The fact that the membership of the United Nations has grown from the original fifty-one in 1946 to 111 in early 1963 is clear testimony of the faith mankind places in the work of this Organization in the pursuit of an orderly and peaceful world. The United Nations has played an important role in the attainment of independence by many new nations. It has also striven ceaselessly to promote better standards of living and to narrow the vast economic gap between the rich and the poor countries.

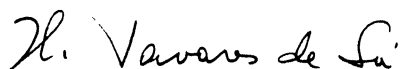
Thus, recognition of one of the challenging demands of the peoples of developing countries was demonstrated by the General Assembly when on December 19, 1961, it unanimously proclaimed the present decade as the "United Nations Development Decade," a period of concentrated effort to raise the economic and social level of two-thirds of humanity still living in poverty and want.

Since the last edition of *Everyman's United Nations* was published, the Organization has passed through many crises which might have proved fatal to an organization less firmly rooted in the desire of mankind for peace and survival. Besides retaining the cumulative account of the activities of the United Nations from its beginnings in 1945, the new edition tells of the successful work of the United Nations in strife-torn Congo, of the peaceful resolution of conflict in Western New Guinea (West Irian), of the positive steps taken toward international cooperation in the peaceful exploration of outer space, and of the persistent and continuing efforts to rid mankind of the threat of nuclear war.

The book also describes the role of various United Nations programs of technical cooperation in speeding the economic and social development of low-income countries and covers such topics as the emergence of new nations from colonial status, international assistance to children and refugees, and the important but little publicized work of the International Court of Justice and the International Law Com-

mission. An entire section is devoted to the work of the specialized agencies related to the United Nations, each serving the world in its particular field.

Everyman's is intended primarily as a work of ready reference for use by the general reader as well as by students, teachers, journalists and men and women in public life who, in their day-to-day work, find an increasing need for an informed understanding of the United Nations and its diverse activities which, in one way or the other, touch the lives of all of us.

A handwritten signature in dark ink, reading "H. Tavares de Sá". The script is fluid and cursive, with the first letter of each word being capitalized and prominent.

HERNANE TAVARES DE SÁ

Under-Secretary for Public Information

PART ONE

*Description and Purposes
of the United Nations*

Description and Purposes of the United Nations

INTRODUCTION

The deep-felt needs and intentions which inspired the founding of the United Nations are proclaimed in the preamble to the Charter, signed at San Francisco on June 26, 1945. The preamble reads:

WE THE PEOPLES OF THE UNITED NATIONS DETERMINED to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind, and to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small, and to establish conditions under which justice and respect for the obligations arising from treaties and other sources of international law can be maintained, and to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,

AND FOR THESE ENDS to practice tolerance and live together in peace with one another as good neighbors, and to unite our strength to maintain international peace and security, and to ensure, by the acceptance of principles and the institution of methods, that armed force shall not be used, save in the common interest, and to employ international machinery for the promotion of the economic and social advancement of all peoples,

HAVE RESOLVED TO COMBINE OUR EFFORTS TO ACCOMPLISH THESE AIMS. Accordingly, our respective governments, through representatives assembled in the city of San Francisco, who have exhibited their full powers found to be in good and due form, have agreed to the present Charter of the United Nations and do hereby establish an international organization to be known as the United Nations.

PURPOSES

The purposes of the United Nations are:

1. to maintain international peace and security;
2. to develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples;

3. to cooperate in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural or humanitarian character, and in promoting respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms for all; and

4. to be a center for harmonizing the actions of nations in attaining these common ends.

PRINCIPLES

To fulfil the purposes for which it was established, the United Nations acts in accordance with the following principles:

1. the Organization is based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all its members;

2. members are to fulfil in good faith the obligations they have assumed under the Charter;

3. they are to settle their international disputes by peaceful means;

4. they are to refrain in their international relations from the threat or use of force in any manner inconsistent with the purposes of the United Nations;

5. they are to give the United Nations every assistance in any action it takes in accordance with the Charter, and to refrain from giving assistance to any state against which the Organization is taking preventive or enforcement action;

6. the United Nations is to ensure that non-members act in accordance with these principles so far as is necessary for maintaining international peace and security;

7. the Organization is not to intervene in matters essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any state. This provision does not, however, prejudice the application of enforcement action with respect to threats to the peace, breaches of the peace, and acts of aggression.

FINANCES

The United Nations is financed by contributions from member states. How much each member shall pay is determined by the General Assembly. (*For percentage contributions, see page 451.*)

STEPS TO THE CHARTER

Inter-Allied Declaration

The Inter-Allied Declaration was signed on June 12, 1941, at St. James's Palace, London, by the representatives of Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the Union of South Africa, and the United Kingdom, and of the exiled Governments of Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Greece, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, and Yugoslavia, and

by General de Gaulle of France. The document declares against separate peace and states:

"The only true basis of enduring peace is the willing cooperation of free peoples in a world in which, relieved of the menace of aggression, all may enjoy economic and social security;

"It is our intention to work together, and with other free peoples, both in war and peace, to this end."

Atlantic Charter

The Atlantic Charter was issued "somewhere in the Atlantic" on August 14, 1941, by President Franklin D. Roosevelt of the United States and Prime Minister Winston Churchill of the United Kingdom. Clause 6 of the Charter reads:

"After the final destruction of the Nazi tyranny, they [the signatories] hope to see established a peace which will afford to all nations the means of dwelling in safety within their own boundaries, and which will afford assurance that all the men in all the lands may live out their lives in freedom from fear and want."

Clause 8 reads:

"They [the signatories] believe that all of the nations of the world, for realistic as well as spiritual reasons, must come to the abandonment of the use of force. Since no future peace can be maintained if land, sea, or air armaments continue to be employed by nations which threaten, or may threaten, aggression outside of their frontiers, they believe, pending the establishment of a wider and permanent system of general security, that the disarmament of such nations is essential. They will likewise aid and encourage all other practicable measures which will lighten for peace-loving peoples the crushing burden of armaments."

Clause 5 states the signatories' desire to bring about the fullest collaboration between all nations in the economic field with the objective of securing, for all, improved labor standards, economic advancement, and social security.

Declaration by United Nations

The Declaration by United Nations was signed by the representatives of twenty-six nations on January 1, 1942, at Washington, D.C. The Declaration reads:

"The Governments signatory hereto,

"Having subscribed to a common program of purposes and principles embodied in the . . . Atlantic Charter,

"Being convinced that complete victory over their enemies is essential to defend life, liberty, independence, and religious freedom,

and to preserve human rights and justice in their own lands as well as in other lands, and that they are now engaged in a common struggle against savage and brutal forces seeking to subjugate the world,

"declare:

"(i) Each government pledges itself to employ its full resources, military or economic, against those members of the Tripartite Pact and its adherents with which such government is at war.

"(ii) Each government pledges itself to cooperate with the governments signatory hereto and not to make a separate armistice or peace with the enemies.

"The foregoing declaration may be adhered to by other nations which are, or may be, rendering material assistance and contributions in the struggle for victory over Hitlerism."

The signatories were:

The United States of America	Canada	Luxembourg
The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	Costa Rica	Netherlands
The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	Cuba	New Zealand
China	Czechoslovakia	Nicaragua
Australia	Dominican Republic	Norway
Belgium	El Salvador	Panama
	Greece	Poland
	Guatemala	Union of South Africa
	Haiti	Yugoslavia
	Honduras	
	India	

Later adherents to the Declaration were (in order of the dates of adherence):

Mexico	Colombia	Venezuela
Philippines	Liberia	Uruguay
Ethiopia	France	Turkey
Iraq	Ecuador	Egypt
Brazil	Peru	Saudi Arabia
Bolivia	Chile	Syria
Iran	Paraguay	Lebanon

(Note: France and Denmark were generally regarded as having been identified with the United Nations from the beginning. The French authorities abroad had carried on hostilities and the Danish Minister in Washington had signified the adherence of all free Danes to the Allied cause. Since the Declaration was signed by Governments, they could not at that time, however, formally adhere to it. France, when the French National Committee was constituted as a Government, adhered formally to the Declaration. Denmark, which was not liberated until after the opening of the San Francisco Conference, was admitted as one of the United Nations by the Conference.)

Moscow and Teheran Conferences

On October 30, 1943, a declaration was signed in Moscow by Vyacheslav Molotov of the USSR, Anthony Eden of the United Kingdom, Cordell Hull of the United States, and Foo Ping-Sheung, the Chinese Ambassador to the Soviet Union. Clause 4 of the Moscow Four-Nations Declaration on General Security proclaims that:

"they [the four governments] recognize the necessity of establishing at the earliest practicable date a general international organization, based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all peace-loving states, and open to membership by all such states, large and small, for the maintenance of international peace and security."

On the first of December of the same year, President Roosevelt, Premier Stalin and Prime Minister Churchill, meeting at Teheran, declared:

". . . we are sure that our concord will win an enduring peace. We recognize fully the supreme responsibility resting upon us and all the United Nations to make a peace which will command the goodwill of the overwhelming masses of the peoples of the world and banish the scourge and terror of war for many generations."

Dumbarton Oaks and Yalta Conferences

The first blueprint of the United Nations was prepared at a conference held at a mansion known as Dumbarton Oaks in Washington, D.C. The first phase of the conference was between the representatives of the USSR, the United Kingdom, and the United States from August 21 to September 28, 1944; and the second phase, between the representatives of China, the United Kingdom and the United States from September 29 to October 7. (This arrangement served to respect USSR neutrality in the war against Japan.) At the end of the conference, proposals for the structure of a world organization were published. Extensive public discussion followed in Allied countries.

According to the Dumbarton Oaks proposals, the key body in the United Nations for preserving world peace was to be the Security Council, on which the "Big Five"—China, France, the USSR, the United Kingdom, and the United States—were to be permanently represented. Voting procedure in the Council was not specified, however. This was discussed at Yalta at a conference between President Roosevelt, Prime Minister Churchill, and Premier Stalin. On February 11, 1945, the conference announced that this point had been settled. The three leaders then went on to declare:

"We are resolved upon the earliest possible establishment with our Allies of a general international organization to maintain peace and security. . . .

"We have agreed that a conference of United Nations should be

called to meet at San Francisco . . . on the twenty-fifth April 1945, to prepare the charter of such an organization, along the lines proposed in the informal conversations of Dumbarton Oaks."

United Nations Conference on International Organization

Delegates of fifty nations met at San Francisco between April 25 and June 26, 1945. Working on the Dumbarton Oaks proposals, the Yalta Agreement, and amendments proposed by various Governments, the Conference agreed upon the Charter of the United Nations and the Statute of the new International Court of Justice. The Charter was passed unanimously and signed by all the representatives.

It came into force on October 24, 1945, when China, France, the USSR, the United Kingdom, and the United States and a majority of the other signatories had filed their instruments of ratification. October 24 is now observed as United Nations Day.

MEMBERSHIP

The original members of the United Nations, numbering fifty-one, are those states which took part in the San Francisco Conference or had previously signed the Declaration by United Nations, and which signed and ratified the Charter. They are:

Argentina	Denmark	Lebanon	Turkey
Australia	Dominican Republic	Liberia	Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic
Belgium	Ecuador	Luxembourg	Union of South Africa
Bolivia	Egypt ¹	Mexico	
Brazil	El Salvador	Netherlands	
Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic	Ethiopia	New Zealand	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
Canada	France	Nicaragua	United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
Chile	Greece	Norway	
China	Guatemala	Panama	
Colombia	Haiti	Paraguay	
Costa Rica	Honduras	Peru	United States of America
Cuba	India	Philippines	
Czechoslovakia	Iran	Poland ²	Uruguay
	Iraq	Saudi Arabia	Venezuela
		Syria ¹	Yugoslavia

¹ In February 1958 Egypt and Syria united to form the United Arab Republic with a single membership in the United Nations. Following the dissolution of the union, the Syrian Arab Republic, on October 8, 1961, notified the United Nations that it had resumed its status as an independent state. In the absence of any objections, Syria resumed its seat in the General Assembly on October 13, 1961.

² Poland did not attend the San Francisco Conference because the composition of its new government was not announced until June 28—too late for the Conference. A space, however, was left for the signature of Poland, one of the original signatories of the Declaration by United Nations. Poland signed the Charter on October 15, 1945, thus becoming one of the original members.

Membership in the United Nations is open to all peace-loving states which accept and, in the judgment of the Organization, are able and willing to carry out the obligations of the Charter. Any state desiring to become a member must submit an application containing a declaration that it accepts the obligations contained in the Charter.

New members are admitted by a two-thirds vote of the General Assembly upon the recommendation of the Security Council. Membership becomes effective on the date on which the Assembly takes its decision on the application.

The following additional members had been admitted as of December 1962, bringing the total members to 110.

<i>Member</i>	<i>Date of Admission</i>	<i>Member</i>	<i>Date of Admission</i>
Afghanistan	- November 19, 1946	Cameroon	- September 20, 1960
Iceland	- November 19, 1946	Central African	
Sweden	- November 19, 1946	Republic	- September 20, 1960
Thailand *	- December 16, 1946	Chad	- September 20, 1960
Pakistan	- September 30, 1947	Congo	
Yemen	- September 30, 1947	(Brazzaville)	- September 20, 1960
Burma	- April 19, 1948	Congo	
Israel	- May 11, 1949	(Leopold-	
Indonesia	- September 28, 1950	ville)	- September 20, 1960
Albania	- December 14, 1955	Cyprus	- September 20, 1960
Austria	- December 14, 1955	Dahomey	- September 20, 1960
Bulgaria	- December 14, 1955	Gabon	- September 20, 1960
Cambodia	- December 14, 1955	Ivory Coast	- September 20, 1960
Ceylon	- December 14, 1955	Madagascar	- September 20, 1960
Finland	- December 14, 1955	Niger	- September 20, 1960
Hungary	- December 14, 1955	Somalia	- September 20, 1960
Ireland	- December 14, 1955	Togo	- September 20, 1960
Italy	- December 14, 1955	Upper Volta	- September 20, 1960
Jordan	- December 14, 1955	Mali	- September 28, 1960
Laos	- December 14, 1955	Senegal	- September 28, 1960
Libya	- December 14, 1955	Nigeria	- October 7, 1960
Nepal	- December 14, 1955	Sierra Leone	- September 27, 1961
Portugal	- December 14, 1955	Mauritania	- October 27, 1961
Romania	- December 14, 1955	Mongolia	- October 27, 1961
Spain	- December 14, 1955	Tanganyika	- December 14, 1961
Sudan	- November 12, 1956	Burundi	- September 18, 1962
Morocco	- November 12, 1956	Jamaica	- September 18, 1962
Tunisia	- November 12, 1956	Rwanda	- September 18, 1962
Japan	- December 18, 1956	Trinidad and	
Ghana	- March 8, 1957	Tobago	- September 18, 1962
Federation		Algeria	- October 8, 1962
of Malaya	- September 17, 1957	Uganda	- October 19, 1962
Guinea	- December 12, 1958		

* Formerly Siam

A member of the United Nations against which preventive or enforcement action has been taken by the Security Council may be suspended from the exercise of the rights and privileges of membership by the General Assembly on the recommendation of the Security Council. The exercise of these rights and privileges may be restored by the Security Council.

A member of the United Nations which has persistently violated the principles of the Charter may be expelled from the Organization by the General Assembly on the recommendation of the Security Council. There is no provision in the Charter concerning the re-entry into the Organization of an expelled member.

After lengthy debate, it was agreed at the San Francisco Conference not to include any provision in the Charter for the withdrawal of members. It was made clear, however, that it was not the purpose of the Organization to compel a member "to continue its cooperation in the Organization," if that member "because of exceptional circumstances" felt constrained to withdraw.

PERMANENT MISSIONS TO THE UNITED NATIONS

Since the creation of the United Nations, the practice has developed of establishing permanent missions of member states at the seat of the Organization. The General Assembly sought to regulate the submission of credentials of permanent representatives on December 3, 1948 when it recommended that credentials be issued by the head of the state, by the head of the government, or by the Minister of Foreign Affairs, and be transmitted to the Secretary-General. It was further recommended that the permanent representative, in case of temporary absence, should notify the Secretary-General of the name of his replacement; that member states which wanted their permanent representatives to represent them on one or more organs of the United Nations should specify in their credentials the organs concerned; and finally, that changes of members of permanent missions, other than the permanent representative, should be communicated in writing to the Secretary-General by the head of the mission.

LANGUAGES

In all organs of the United Nations, other than the International Court of Justice, the official languages are Chinese, English, French, Russian, and Spanish, and the working languages are English and French. In the General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council, Spanish is also a working language. The official languages of the International Court of Justice are English and French.

AMENDMENTS TO THE CHARTER

The Charter can be amended by the General Assembly or by a General Conference of members of the United Nations. A General Conference may be held at a date and place decided upon by a two-thirds vote of the Assembly and a vote of any seven members of the Security Council. Each member of the United Nations has one vote in the Conference.

Amendments require a two-thirds vote in the General Assembly or in the General Conference. Amendments thus adopted take effect when they are ratified by two-thirds of the members, including all the permanent members of the Security Council.

PRINCIPAL ORGANS

The United Nations has six principal organs: the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council, the International Court of Justice, and the Secretariat.

General Assembly

The General Assembly is composed of all member states.

Each member has not more than five representatives in the Assembly, chosen according to each country's own design.

Functions

To consider and make recommendations on the principles of international cooperation in the maintenance of peace and security, including the principles governing disarmament and the regulation of armaments;

to discuss any problem affecting peace and security and, except where a dispute or situation is currently being discussed by the Security Council, make recommendations on it;

to discuss and, with the same exception, make recommendations on any question within the scope of the Charter or affecting the powers and functions of any organ of the United Nations;

to initiate studies and make recommendations to promote international political cooperation, the development of international law and its codification, the realization of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all, and international collaboration in economic, social, cultural, educational, and health fields;

to receive and consider reports from the Security Council and other organs of the United Nations;

to make recommendations for the peaceful settlement of any situation, regardless of origin, which might impair friendly relations among nations;

to supervise, through the Trusteeship Council, the execution of trusteeship agreements for all areas not designated as strategic;

to elect the six non-permanent members of the Security Council, the eighteen members of the Economic and Social Council, and those members of the Trusteeship Council which are elected; to take part with the Security Council in the election of the judges of the International Court of Justice; and, on the recommendation of the Security Council, to appoint the Secretary-General;

to consider and approve the budget of the United Nations, apportion the contributions among members, and examine the budgets of the specialized agencies.

Under the "Uniting for Peace" resolution adopted by the General Assembly in November 1950, if the Security Council, because of lack of unanimity of its five permanent members, fails to act on an apparent threat to the peace, breach of the peace, or act of aggression, the Assembly itself may take up the matter within twenty-four hours—in emergency special session—and recommend collective measures, including, in the case of a breach of the peace or act of aggression, the use of armed force.

Voting on important questions, such as recommendations on peace and security, election of members to organs, admission, suspension, and expulsion of members, trusteeship questions, and budgetary matters, is by a two-thirds majority. On other questions it is by a simple majority.

Each member of the General Assembly has one vote.

Sessions

The General Assembly meets once a year in regular session commencing on the third Tuesday in September. Special sessions can be convened at the request of the Security Council, by a majority of United Nations members, or by one member's request concurred in by the majority of members. An emergency special session may be called within twenty-four hours of a request by the Security Council on the vote of any seven members of the Council.

Structure

The General Assembly functions through seven Main Committees, on which all members may be represented. The Committees and their work are:

FIRST COMMITTEE (political and security questions, including the regulation of armaments);

SPECIAL POLITICAL COMMITTEE (shares the work of the First Committee);

SECOND COMMITTEE (economic and financial questions);

THIRD COMMITTEE (social, humanitarian, and cultural questions);

FOURTH COMMITTEE (trusteeship questions, including non-self-governing territories);

FIFTH COMMITTEE (administrative and budgetary questions);

SIXTH COMMITTEE (legal questions).

In addition, the General Committee—composed of the President and thirteen Vice-Presidents of the Assembly, and the Chairmen of the seven Main Committees—meets frequently during a session to supervise the Assembly's work. The Credentials Committee, appointed by the President at each session, verifies the credentials of representatives.

The General Assembly as a rule refers all questions on its agenda to one of the Main Committees, to a joint committee, or to an *ad hoc* committee established specially to consider a question. These committees, after voting by simple majority, then submit proposals for approval to a plenary meeting of the Assembly. Voting in committee and subcommittee is by simple majority. Questions not referred to a Main Committee are dealt with by the Assembly itself in plenary meetings.

The General Assembly is assisted by two standing committees—the Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions (twelve members) and the Committee on Contributions (ten members). Members of these committees are elected by the General Assembly for three-year terms on the basis of personal qualifications and geographical distribution.

The Assembly has also established four other standing bodies to assist it: the Board of Auditors, Investments Committee, United Nations Staff Pension Committee, and International Law Commission.

In addition, the Assembly has set up throughout the years subsidiary and special bodies whose work is dealt with elsewhere in this volume under the relevant topic.

Security Council

The Security Council is composed of five permanent members—China, France, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Kingdom, and the United States of America—and six non-permanent members, elected by the General Assembly for two-year terms. Members are not eligible for immediate re-election.

Functions

To maintain international peace and security in accordance with the purposes and principles of the United Nations;

to investigate any dispute or situation which might lead to international friction;

to recommend methods of adjusting such disputes or the terms of settlement;

to formulate plans for the establishment of a system to regulate armaments;

to determine the existence of a threat to the peace or act of aggression and to recommend what action should be taken;

to call on members to apply economic sanctions and other measures short of war in order to prevent or stop aggression;

to take military action against an aggressor;

to recommend the admission of new members and the terms on which states may become parties to the Statute of the International Court of Justice;

to exercise the trusteeship functions of the United Nations in "strategic areas";

to recommend to the General Assembly the appointment of the Secretary-General and, together with the General Assembly, to elect the judges of the International Court of Justice;

to submit annual and special reports to the General Assembly.

Voting in the Security Council on all matters other than questions of procedure is by an affirmative vote of seven members, including those of the permanent members. Any member, however, whether permanent or non-permanent, must abstain from voting in a dispute to which it is a party. On questions of procedure, a decision is by an affirmative vote of any seven members.

The Security Council is so organized as to be able to function continuously, and a representative of each of its members must be present at all times at United Nations Headquarters. The Council may meet elsewhere than at Headquarters.

A country which is a member of the United Nations but not of the Council may take part in its discussions when the Council considers that that country's interests are specially affected. Both members and non-members are invited to take part in the Council's discussions when they are parties to disputes being considered; in the case of a non-member, the Council lays down the conditions under which it may participate.

The presidency of the Council is held monthly in turn by members in English alphabetical order. The Council decides its own rules of procedure and may establish subsidiary organs.

Military Staff Committee

The Military Staff Committee, composed of the Chiefs of Staff of the five permanent members or their representatives, advises and assists

the Security Council on such questions as the Council's military requirements for the maintenance of peace, the strategic direction of armed forces placed at its disposal, the regulation of armaments, and possible disarmament.

Disarmament Commission

The Disarmament Commission was established by the General Assembly on January 11, 1952, and replaced the former Atomic Energy Commission and the Commission for Conventional Armaments.

The Disarmament Commission was directed to prepare proposals to be embodied in a draft treaty, or treaties, for the regulation, limitation, and balanced reduction of all armed forces and all armaments; for the elimination of all major weapons adaptable to mass destruction; and for effective international control of atomic energy to ensure the prohibition of atomic weapons and the use of atomic energy for peaceful purposes only. When preparing these proposals, the Commission was to formulate plans for the establishment within the framework of the Security Council of an international control organ, or organs, to ensure the implementation of the treaty, or treaties; and it was to consider from the outset plans for progressive and continuing disclosure and verification of all armaments and armed forces. A conference of all states was to be convened to consider the Commission's proposals when any part of its program was ready for submission to governments.

Collective Measures Committee

The Committee was established by the General Assembly at its fifth session, to study and report on methods which might be used collectively to maintain and strengthen international peace and security. (See also *Uniting for Peace*, page 64.)

The Committee reports to both the General Assembly and the Security Council.

Standing Committees

There are two standing committees, the Committee of Experts which studies and advises the Council on rules of procedure and other technical matters, and the Committee on Admission of New Members; each is composed of representatives of all Council members. Over the years, the Council has also established many *ad hoc* bodies.

Relations with Other Organs

The Security Council makes annual and special reports to the General Assembly. In this task it may request the assistance of the Economic

and Social Council. It has also the assistance of the Trusteeship Council in performing duties relating to political, economic, social, and educational matters in Trust Territories which are designated as strategic areas.

The Security Council and the General Assembly, voting independently, elect the judges of the International Court of Justice. Those candidates who obtain an absolute majority of votes in each body are elected. The Council may ask the Court for an advisory opinion on any legal question. If any party to a case fails to perform the obligations incumbent on it under a judgment by the Court, the other party may have recourse to the Council, which, if it deems it necessary, may make recommendations or decide on measures to give effect to the Court's judgment. The Council recommends to the Assembly the terms on which a state which is not a member of the United Nations may become a party to the Statute of the Court. Subject to the provisions of treaties in force, the Council lays down the conditions on which the Court is to be open to a state which is not a party to its Statute.

It is on the Security Council's recommendation that the General Assembly appoints the Secretary-General.

Economic and Social Council

The Economic and Social Council is composed of eighteen members, six of which are elected each year by the General Assembly for a three-year term of office. Retiring members are eligible for immediate re-election.

Functions

To be responsible, under the authority of the General Assembly, for the economic and social activities of the United Nations;

to make or initiate studies, reports, and recommendations on international economic, social, cultural, educational, health, and related matters;

to promote respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all;

to call international conferences and prepare draft conventions for submission to the General Assembly on matters within its competence;

to negotiate agreements with the specialized agencies, defining their relationship with the United Nations;

to coordinate the activities of the specialized agencies by means of consultation with them and recommendations to them, and by means of recommendations to the General Assembly and members of the United Nations;

to perform services, approved by the Assembly, for members of the United Nations and, upon request, for the specialized agencies; to consult with non-governmental organizations concerned with matters with which the Council deals.

Voting in the Economic and Social Council is by simple majority; each member has one vote.

Subsidiary Bodies

The Council works through commissions and committees. The following functional commissions have been set up:

STATISTICAL COMMISSION

POPULATION COMMISSION

SOCIAL COMMISSION

COMMISSION ON HUMAN RIGHTS

COMMISSION ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN

COMMISSION ON NARCOTIC DRUGS

COMMISSION ON INTERNATIONAL COMMODITY TRADE

Countries are elected members of the Commissions by the Economic and Social Council. Representatives on the Commission on Narcotic Drugs and on the Commission on International Commodity Trade are appointed directly by their respective Governments. For the others, the member countries nominate representatives, after consultation with the Secretary-General, with a view to securing balanced representation in the various fields covered by each Commission; these nominations are in turn confirmed by the Council.

There is also a Council subcommission—that on Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities—and a Committee on Periodic Reports on Human Rights.

Apart from the functional commissions, there are four regional economic commissions: for Europe; for Asia and the Far East; for Latin America; and for Africa. Finally, there are five standing committees: Technical Assistance Committee; Council Committee on Non-Governmental Organizations; Interim Committee on Program of Conferences; Committee for Industrial Development and Committee on Housing, Building and Planning.

Special bodies include, *inter alia*, the Permanent Central Opium Board; Drug Supervisory Body; United Nations Children's Fund; Executive Committee on the Program of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees; Administrative Committee on Coordination; Technical Assistance Board; United Nations Special Fund; and Interim Coordinating Committee for International Commodity Arrangements. Finally, the Council works through some *ad hoc* bodies.

Intergovernmental Agencies

The intergovernmental agencies are separate, autonomous organizations related to the United Nations by special arrangements. They have their own membership, their own legislative and executive bodies, their own secretariats and their own budgets, but they work with the United Nations and with each other through the coordinating machinery of the Economic and Social Council. The International Atomic Energy Agency was established "under the aegis of the United Nations"; it reports annually to the General Assembly and, as appropriate, to the Security Council and the Economic and Social Council. Thirteen other organizations are known as "specialized agencies," a term used in the United Nations Charter; they report annually to the Economic and Social Council.

The intergovernmental agencies are:

International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA)

International Labour Organisation (ILO)

Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)

World Health Organization (WHO)

International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (World Bank, IBRD)

International Development Association (IDA)

International Finance Corporation (IFC)

International Monetary Fund (Fund, IMF)

International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO)

Universal Postal Union (UPU)

International Telecommunication Union (ITU)

World Meteorological Organization (WMO)

Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization (IMCO)

Another specialized agency, the International Refugee Organization (IRO), created in December 1946, ceased operations at the end of 1951.

The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) is not an intergovernmental agency but is often listed among them because of its relationship with some of the agencies.

Non-Governmental Organizations

Non-governmental organizations may be consulted by the Economic and Social Council on questions with which they are concerned. The Council recognizes that these organizations should have the opportunity to express their views and that they often possess special experience or technical knowledge which will be of great value to the Council in its work.

Organizations are divided thus: those with a basic interest in most of the activities of the Council (Category A); those with a special competence but concerned with only a few of the Council's activities (Category B); and those placed on a register for *ad hoc* consultations. As of December 1962, ten organizations were in Category A, 124 in Category B, and 198 were on the register.

All these organizations may send observers to public meetings of the Council and its commissions. Those in Categories A and B may submit written statements for circulation as documents of these United Nations bodies. Category A organizations may present their views orally and may also propose items for possible inclusion in the Council's provisional agenda. Such proposals must first be submitted to the Council Committee on Non-Governmental Organizations which also advises the Council on which organizations are to be given consultative status. Category A organizations, however, may propose items directly for the provisional agenda of the commissions and of international conferences.

In addition, all three groups of non-governmental organizations may consult with the United Nations Secretariat on matters of mutual concern.

Trusteeship and Non-Self-Governing Territories

Non-Self-Governing Territories

The Charter contains in a separate chapter the principles to be observed and the obligations of members in relation to the non-self-governing territories for which they are responsible. Under these provisions members of the United Nations which administer territories whose peoples have not yet attained a full measure of self-government recognize the principle that the interests of the inhabitants of the territories are paramount. They also accept as "a sacred trust" the obligations to promote the well-being and the political, economic, social, and educational advancement of the peoples concerned. Specifically they accept the responsibility to develop self-government in the territories taking into account the political aspirations of the peoples.

The member states administering non-self-governing territories undertake to transmit regularly to the Secretary-General statistical and other information on economic, social, and educational conditions in these territories. Although some members have always included material on political and constitutional developments, in response to requests by the General Assembly over the years, in 1962 for the first time all members transmitting information included such material. Each year a Committee established by the General Assembly examines the information on non-self-governing territories, and, since 1961, has also examined political and constitutional developments. On the

basis of the Committee's reports, the Assembly adopts decisions and makes recommendations to the administering members to ensure that the territories attain the goals established by the Charter as soon as possible.

The Trusteeship System

The Charter set up an international trusteeship system for the administration and supervision of territories placed thereunder by individual agreements. Such territories are called "trust territories."

The objectives of the trusteeship system are:

- to further international peace and security;
- to promote the advancement of the inhabitants of the trust territories toward self-government or independence;
- to encourage respect for human rights and recognition of the interdependence of the peoples of the world; and
- to ensure equal treatment in the trust territories in social, economic, and commercial questions for all members of the United Nations and their nationals, and equal treatment for the nationals of all members in the administration of justice.

The trusteeship system can apply to territories formerly held under League of Nations mandates; territories taken from enemy states as an outcome of the Second World War; and others voluntarily placed under the trusteeship system. No country which is a member of the United Nations can be administered under the trusteeship system.

Trusteeship agreements must state the terms under which the trust territories are to be administered and must state what authority is to administer them. The administering authority can be a single state, a group of states, or the United Nations itself.

In the case of all trust territories, except any designated as a strategic area, all the functions of the United Nations are carried out by the General Assembly and, under its authority, by the Trusteeship Council; in the case of a strategic area they are carried out by the Security Council, with the assistance of the Trusteeship Council.

Trusteeship Council

According to the Charter, the Trusteeship Council is composed of members of the United Nations administering trust territories; permanent members of the Security Council which do not administer trust territories; and enough other members (elected by the General Assembly for three-year terms) to make an equal division between countries which administer trust territories and countries which do not. Elected members of the Council are eligible, on the expiry of their terms, for immediate re-election.

Functions

To examine and discuss reports from administering authorities;

to examine petitions in consultation with the administering authorities; and

to make periodic inspection visits at times agreed upon with the administering authority.

At the end of 1962 the membership of the Trusteeship Council was as follows: Australia, New Zealand, United Kingdom, United States (administering members); China, France, USSR (permanent members of the Security Council not administering trust territories); and Liberia (elected non-administering member).

Voting in the Trusteeship Council is by simple majority; each member has one vote.

The Trust Territories

By the end of 1949, eleven trusteeship agreements had been approved by the General Assembly. Ten of the trusteeship agreements concerned the following territories (the administering authority is shown in each case):

Nauru— <i>Australia</i> (on behalf of Australia, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom)	Cameroons } Togoland } — <i>France</i> Somaliland— <i>Italy</i> Western Samoa— <i>New Zealand</i>
New Guinea— <i>Australia</i>	Cameroons } Tanganyika } — <i>United Kingdom</i> Togoland }
Ruanda-Urundi— <i>Belgium</i>	

The eleventh—the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands—composed of the former Japanese-mandated islands of the Marshalls, Marianas (with the exception of Guam), and Carolines, is a strategic trust territory administered by the United States under an agreement approved by the Security Council in April 1947.

By the end of 1962 only three trust territories remained—New Guinea, Nauru, and the Pacific Islands—the others having reached the Charter's goal of self-government or independence.

The International Court of Justice

The International Court of Justice is the principal judicial organ of the United Nations, and functions in accordance with its Statute. This Statute is based upon the Statute of the Permanent Court of International Justice which functioned under the League of Nations. The present Statute is an integral part of the United Nations Charter.

Composition of the Court and Parties to the Statute

All members of the United Nations are automatically parties to the Statute of the International Court. A state not belonging to the United Nations may become a party to the Statute on conditions to be determined in each case by the General Assembly on recommendation of the Security Council. Switzerland (1948), Liechtenstein (1950), and San Marino (1954) are the three non-member states which are presently parties to the Statute. Japan had also become a party to the Statute before its admission to the United Nations. The Court is open to states which are not parties to its Statute on conditions laid down by a Security Council resolution of October 15, 1946. Such states must file with the Registrar of the Court a declaration by which they accept the Court's jurisdiction in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations and the Statute and Rules of the Court, undertaking to comply in good faith with the decision or decisions of the Court and accepting all the obligations of a Member of the United Nations under Article 94 of the Charter. Such a declaration may be either particular or general. A particular declaration is one accepting the Court's jurisdiction in respect of a particular dispute or disputes, which have already arisen. A general declaration is one accepting the jurisdiction in respect of all disputes, or of a particular class or classes of dispute, which have already arisen or which may arise in the future. The Court is not open to private individuals.

Jurisdiction

The jurisdiction of the Court comprises all cases which parties refer to it, and all matters specifically provided for in the Charter or in treaties or conventions in force. In the event of a dispute as to whether the Court has jurisdiction, the matter shall be settled by the decision of the Court.

To preserve continuity with the work of the Permanent Court of International Justice, the Statute of the International Court of Justice stipulates that whenever a treaty or convention in force provided for reference of a matter to the Permanent Court, the matter is to be referred to the International Court.

States are not forced to submit cases to the Court. The Charter provides that members of the United Nations may entrust the solution of their differences to other tribunals.

COMPULSORY JURISDICTION

States parties to the Statute may at any time declare that they recognize as compulsory, *ipso facto* and without special agreement, in relation to any state accepting the same obligation, the jurisdiction of the Court in all legal disputes concerning: (a) the interpretation of a

treaty; (b) any question of international law; (c) the existence of any fact which, if established, would constitute a breach of an international obligation; and (d) the nature or extent of the reparation to be made for the breach of an international obligation.

By January 1, 1963, thirty-six states had accepted the compulsory jurisdiction of the Court. They are:

Australia	Honduras	Pakistan
Belgium	India	Panama
Cambodia	Israel	Philippines
Canada	Japan	Portugal
China	Liberia	South Africa
Colombia	Liechtenstein	Sudan
Denmark	Luxembourg	Sweden
Dominican Republic	Mexico	Switzerland
El Salvador	Netherlands	United Arab Republic
Finland	New Zealand	United Kingdom
France	Nicaragua	United States
Haiti	Norway	Uruguay

Advisory Opinions

The General Assembly or the Security Council may request the Court to give an advisory opinion on any legal question. Other organs of the United Nations or specialized agencies, when authorized by the Assembly, may also request advisory opinions on legal questions arising within the scope of their activities. The Assembly has authorized the following organs and agencies to request advisory opinions: Economic and Social Council; Trusteeship Council; Interim Committee of the General Assembly; Committee on Applications for Review of Administrative Tribunal Judgements; International Labour Organization; Food and Agriculture Organization; United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization; International Civil Aviation Organization; International Monetary Fund; International Bank for Reconstruction and Development; International Finance Corporation; World Health Organization; Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization; International Telecommunication Union; World Meteorological Organization; International Atomic Energy Agency, and International Development Association.

The Law Applied by the Court

In accordance with Article 38 of the Statute, the Court applies: (a) international treaties and conventions; (b) international custom; (c) the general principles of law recognized by civilized nations; and (d) judicial decisions and the teachings of the most highly qualified publicists as subsidiary means for the determination of the rules of law. Furthermore, the Court may decide a case *ex aequo et bono*,

that is, according to the principles of equity, if the parties concerned agree.

The Security Council can be called upon by one of the parties in a case to determine measures to be taken to give effect to a judgment of the Court if the other party fails to perform its obligations under that judgment.

Members of the Court

The Court consists of fifteen judges, known as members of the Court, who are elected by the General Assembly and the Security Council, voting independently. They must be persons of high moral character, who possess the qualifications required in their respective countries for appointment to the highest judicial offices, or are jurisconsults of recognized competence in international law. The Statute provides that at each election the Security Council and the General Assembly bear in mind that the main forms of civilization and principal legal systems of the world should be represented in the Court. No two judges can be nationals of the same state. Judges serve for a term of nine years and may be re-elected. They cannot engage in any other occupation during their term of office.

In December 1962 the judges were:

Bohdan Winiarski, of Poland (*until 1967*), President
Ricardo J. Alfaro, of Panama (*until 1964*), Vice-President
Jules Basdevant, of France (*until 1964*)
Abdel Hamid Badawi, of the United Arab Republic (*until 1967*)
Lucio M. Moreno Quintana, of Argentina (*until 1964*)
Roberto Córdova, of Mexico (*until 1964*)
V. K. Wellington Koo, of China (*until 1967*)
Jean Spiropoulos, of Greece (*until 1967*)
Sir Percy Spender, of Australia (*until 1967*)
Sir Gerald Fitzmaurice, of the United Kingdom (*until 1964*)
Vladimir M. Koretsky, of the USSR (*until 1970*)
Kotaro Tanaka, of Japan (*until 1970*)
José Luis Bustamante y Rivero, of Peru (*until 1970*)
Philip C. Jessup, of the United States (*until 1970*)
Gaetano Morelli, of Italy (*until 1970*)

All questions are decided by a majority of the judges present, with nine constituting a quorum. In the event of an equality of votes, the President of the Court has a casting vote.

Under certain conditions the parties to a case before the Court are entitled to choose *ad hoc*, or national, judges. These judges sit only in the particular case for which they have been appointed. They take part in the decision on terms of complete equality with the other judges of the Court.

The Court may invite assessors to sit with it for the consideration of a particular case. Unlike the *ad hoc* judges, assessors are not entitled to vote. The Court may also entrust any individual or organization with the task of carrying out an inquiry or giving an expert opinion.

The Registry of the Court consists of a Registrar, a Deputy-Registrar, and other officials. The Registrar and Deputy-Registrar are elected by the Court for a term of seven years and may be re-elected. The Registrar is responsible for all departments of the Registry and for the archives of the Court; prepares the Court's budget, and is responsible for publishing a collection of the Court's judgments and advisory opinions and other volumes pertaining to the work of the Court.

The budget appropriation for the Court for the financial year 1962 was \$938,600.

The seat of the International Court of Justice is at The Hague, the Netherlands.

Secretariat

The Secretariat is composed of a Secretary-General appointed by the General Assembly upon the recommendation of the Security Council and "such staff as the Organization may require."

The Secretary-General's functions are:

- to be the chief administrative officer of the Organization;
- to act in his capacity as Secretary-General in all meetings of the General Assembly, of the Security Council, of the Economic and Social Council, and of the Trusteeship Council;
- to perform such other functions as are entrusted to him by these organs;
- to make an annual report and any supplementary reports necessary to the General Assembly on the work of the United Nations;
- to appoint the staff.

Under Article 99 of the Charter, the Secretary-General may bring to the attention of the Security Council any matter which in his opinion may threaten the maintenance of international peace and security.

On February 1, 1946, Trygve Lie, of Norway, was appointed Secretary-General for a five-year term. On November 1, 1950, he was continued in office for a period of three years. On November 10, 1952, he tendered his resignation, and on April 10, 1953, he was succeeded by Dag Hammarskjöld, of Sweden. On September 26, 1957, Mr. Hammarskjöld was appointed for a further five-year term beginning April 10, 1958. Mr. Hammarskjöld died on September 17, 1961, in an airplane crash on his way from Leopoldville in the Congo to Ndola in Northern Rhodesia. On November 3, 1961, the General

Assembly appointed Ambassador U Thant, of Burma, as Acting Secretary-General for a term of office extending until April 10, 1963. On November 30, 1962, the Assembly, acting on the recommendation of the Security Council, unanimously appointed U Thant Secretary-General for a term of office expiring on November 3, 1966.

The staff of the United Nations is appointed by the Secretary-General under regulations established by the General Assembly. The Charter lays down that the "paramount consideration" in employing staff and in determining conditions of service is the necessity of securing the highest standards of efficiency, competence, and integrity. Due regard must be paid to the importance of recruiting on as wide a geographical basis as possible.

Article 100 of the Charter provides that the Secretary-General and the staff, in the performance of their duties, shall not seek or receive instructions from any government or any other authority external to the United Nations. They must also refrain from any action which might reflect on their position as international officials responsible only to the United Nations. For its part, each member of the United Nations is bound by the Charter to respect the exclusively international character of the responsibilities of the Secretary-General and the staff and not to seek to influence them in the discharge of their responsibilities.

The structure of the Secretariat at time of publication was as follows: the Offices of the Secretary-General, consisting of the Executive Office of the Secretary-General, the Office of Legal Affairs, the Office of the Controller, the Office of Personnel, and two Under-Secretaries for Special Political Affairs; the Departments of Political and Security Council Affairs, of Economic and Social Affairs, and of Trusteeship and Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories; the Offices of Public Information, of Conference Services, and of General Services; the Technical Assistance Board; and the United Nations Special Fund.

Following his election as Acting Secretary-General, U Thant named eight Under-Secretaries to serve as his principal advisers. These officials at the end of 1962 were:

Godfrey K. J. Amachree (*Nigeria*), Under-Secretary in charge of United Nations Civilian Operations in the Congo

Ralph J. Bunche (*United States*), Under-Secretary for Special Political Affairs

Philippe de Seynes (*France*), Under-Secretary for Economic and Social Affairs

Evgeny D. Kiselev (*USSR*), Under-Secretary for Political and Security Council Affairs*

* Deceased April 17, 1963

Omar Loutfi (*United Arab Republic*), Under-Secretary for Special Political Affairs*

C. V. Narasimhan (*India*), Under-Secretary for General Assembly Affairs and Chef de Cabinet

Jiří Nosek (*Czechoslovakia*), Under-Secretary for Conference Services

Hernane Tavares de Sá (*Brazil*), Under-Secretary for Public Information

Other principal officers of the Secretariat are:

Sir Alexander MacFarquhar (*United Kingdom*), Director of Personnel

Victor Hoo (*China*), Commissioner for Technical Assistance

Paul G. Hoffman (*United States*), Managing Director of the United Nations Special Fund

Roberto Heurtematte (*Panama*), Associate Managing Director of the United Nations Special Fund

David Owen (*United Kingdom*), Executive Chairman of the United Nations Technical Assistance Board

Maurice Pate (*United States*), Executive Director of the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)

Dragoslav Protitch (*Yugoslavia*), Under-Secretary for Trusteeship and Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories

Constantin Stavropoulos (*Greece*), Legal Counsel

Bruce Turner (*New Zealand*), Controller

David Vaughan (*United States*), Director of General Services

European Office of the United Nations

P. P. Spinelli (*Italy*), Director

Regional Economic Commissions

Robert Gardiner (*Ghana*), Executive Secretary, Economic Commission for Africa (Addis Ababa, Ethiopia)

Raúl Prebisch (*Argentina*), Executive Secretary, Economic Commission for Latin America (Santiago, Chile)

U Nyun (*Burma*), Executive Secretary, Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (Bangkok, Thailand)

Vladimir Velebit (*Yugoslavia*), Executive Secretary, Economic Commission for Europe (Geneva, Switzerland)

**United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees
in the Near East (UNRWA)**

John H. Davis (*United States*), Director (Beirut, Lebanon)

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)

Felix Schnyder (*Switzerland*), High Commissioner (Geneva,
Switzerland)

PART TWO

The Work of the United Nations

The Work of the United Nations

POLITICAL AND SECURITY QUESTIONS

Disarmament and Related Questions

Atomic Energy Commission

By its first resolution, the General Assembly, on January 24, 1946, unanimously established the Atomic Energy Commission and instructed it to make specific proposals on the control of atomic energy to the extent necessary to ensure its use for peaceful purposes only, on the elimination of atomic weapons and all other weapons of mass destruction, and on safeguards by inspection. The Commission was composed of the eleven states represented on the Security Council, plus Canada when it was not a member of the Council. Its work concentrated on proposals from the United States and the Soviet Union.

At the first meeting of the Commission on June 14, 1946, the United States proposed the creation of an international atomic development authority to own and manage all production of atomic energy and the required raw material. It would have had wide powers of inspection to prevent and detect violations of commitments under a system of sanctions not subject to the "veto."

At the next meeting the USSR proposed that absolute priority should be given to the prohibition of the use, production and stockpiling of atomic weapons and to the destruction of existing stocks thereof within three months of the date an international convention would enter into force. International inspection would be subject to prescribed limitation. Violations of the agreement would be punishable under domestic legislation.

Although the Commission decided that control of atomic energy was scientifically and technically feasible, negotiations reached an impasse. In 1948 the General Assembly recommended the United States plan over the objections of the USSR. Further negotiations failed to change positions, and the Commission suspended work in July 1949 and was dissolved by the General Assembly in 1952.

Commission for Conventional Armaments

In February 1947, the Security Council, acting on the basis of a unanimous resolution of the General Assembly of December 14, 1946, which broadened the United Nations objective to cover the regulation and reduction of armaments, set up the Commission for Conventional Armaments—with the same membership as the Security Council—and instructed it to consider measures for the reduction of conventional armaments and armed forces, with an effective system of guarantees. No agreement could be reached, however, on principles to govern the work. The Western powers emphasized that confidence must be established before measures of disarmament could be undertaken; this could be achieved by first solving urgent political problems, such as peace treaties with Germany and Japan and, in the meantime, by having a disclosure and verification of existing conventional armaments and armed forces. The Soviet Union, on the other hand, emphasized the need for immediate practical measures of disarmament to create confidence.

In 1948 the USSR proposed in the General Assembly that the great powers reduce by one-third during the following year all existing land, naval, and air forces; that atomic weapons be prohibited; and that an organ to supervise the application of these measures be established by the Security Council. The Assembly rejected the USSR proposal and adopted a resolution recommended by the majority of the Commission giving priority to Western proposals for the receiving, checking and publication by an international control organ of full information, supplied by member states, on their armed forces. A subsequent French plan for a census and verification of the armed forces failed of adoption in the Security Council because of the negative vote of the USSR. The Council in turn rejected a Soviet proposal which would have required the submission of information both on conventional armaments and on atomic weapons. The majority agreed with the United States view that conventional and atomic weapons should be dealt with separately.

In April 1950 the Soviet Union withdrew from the Commission, as it had done from the Atomic Energy Commission, over the question of the representation of China, and the Commission for Conventional Armaments was dissolved in early 1952.

Disarmament Commission

Following efforts at its 1950 and 1951 sessions to end the impasse, the General Assembly in January 1952 created a single Disarmament Commission to carry on the tasks previously assigned to the Atomic Energy Commission and the Commission for Conventional Armaments. The new Commission, which had the same membership as the Security Council plus Canada, was confronted from the beginning

by disagreement between the Soviet Union and the Western powers on its terms of reference, as well as on specific plans. The impasse continued until November 1, 1953, when the General Assembly suggested the creation of a Sub-Committee of the Disarmament Commission, consisting of representatives of the powers principally involved, to seek in private an acceptable solution.

Disarmament Sub-Committee and its Work

In April 1954 the Disarmament Commission set up a Sub-Committee consisting of five members—Canada, France, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom and the United States. This Sub-Committee held five sessions between May 1954 and September 1957 in which many proposals and plans were exchanged and mutual concessions made.

The various proposals considered by the Sub-Committee included a phased and synchronized disarmament; a ceiling to be imposed on the number of armed forces of the major powers; the freezing of nuclear and conventional weapons; forms of inspection and control; the "open skies" plan; and exchange of military information.

At the eleventh session of the General Assembly in 1956, attention was focused in the main on nuclear weapons. Sweden suggested a moratorium on testing; Canada, Japan, and Norway proposed a system of advance registration and observation of tests; the Soviet Union and India proposed the immediate and independent cessation of nuclear weapons tests; the United Kingdom urged consideration of a controlled limitation of tests; and the United States announced that, if an arrangement to control the future production of fissionable material could be negotiated and put into effect, it would then be willing to limit and ultimately to eliminate all nuclear weapons tests. The General Assembly recommended that the Sub-Committee consider all these proposals, as well as all other disarmament proposals since 1954.

At the 1957 session of the Sub-Committee, which lasted six months, all aspects of the disarmament problem were considered. The main positions of each side on various aspects of the disarmament problem, as revealed in the discussions in the Sub-Committee as well as in the General Assembly during this period, are described below.

NUCLEAR WEAPONS

The Soviet Union proposed a temporary cessation of tests for a period of two or three years and the establishment of an international commission with control posts in the territory of the nuclear powers with adequate equipment to detect tests. The Western powers agreed to a suspension of tests, but made it part of a partial disarmament plan covering both conventional and nuclear weapons, and particu-

larly the cessation of future nuclear production for weapons purposes and the transfer of existing stocks to peaceful purposes. The Soviet Union, in turn, made a cut-off of production conditional on the complete prohibition and elimination of nuclear weapons.

Under the Western powers plan, each party to a disarmament agreement would also have undertaken not to transfer out of its control any nuclear weapons or to accept the transfer of such weapons where their use would be restricted to the exercise of individual or collective self-defense in case of armed attack. The USSR favored an unconditional prohibition of use of nuclear weapons and also an unconditional prohibition on stationing such weapons on the territory of another state.

SAFEGUARDS AGAINST SURPRISE ATTACK

In 1956, at the eleventh session of the General Assembly, the Soviet Union had accepted aerial inspection for a zone extending 800 kilometers east and west from the demarcation line through Germany. Responding to an informal suggestion by the United States in the Sub-Committee as to possible zones of aerial inspection in Central Europe, Alaska, and East Siberia, the Soviet Union proposed aerial inspection in an enlarged zone in Central Europe and in a zone covering the eastern half of Siberia, all of Alaska, and the United States west of the Great Lakes, together with concomitant disarmament measures. The Western powers, in turn, stated their willingness to accept a European aerial inspection zone, provided it included a significant part of the USSR and provided the USSR accepted aerial inspection in either a zone covering all of Canada, the United States, and the USSR or one restricted to the territory north of the Arctic Circle as well as all of Alaska and the eastern part of Siberia.

With regard to ground control posts, the Soviet position was that in the first stage such posts should be established on a basis of reciprocity at large ports, railway junctions, and main motor highways in the western border regions of the USSR, in the eastern part of the United States, and in the territories of the members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and the Warsaw Treaty. The establishment of control posts at airfields, the Soviet delegation contended, must be related to an agreement on the complete prohibition of nuclear weapons. The Western powers, on the other hand, insisted on the inclusion from the beginning of ground posts at airfields as a safeguard against surprise attack. They also favored the use of mobile ground teams.

During 1958 it was agreed to hold a conference of five experts from countries of NATO and an equal number of experts from the countries of the Warsaw Pact to study the problem of safeguards

against surprise attack. The conference which met in November and December 1958 was suspended for lack of agreement on terms of reference.

CONVENTIONAL WEAPONS AND ARMED FORCES

In 1957 concessions were made by both sides: the United States agreed in principle to further reductions of armed forces to less than 2.5 million, suggesting a second-stage level of 2.1 million and a third-stage level of 1.7 million for the Soviet Union and itself. France and the United Kingdom accepted a second-stage ceiling of 700,000 men and a third-stage level of 650,000 for themselves. The Soviet Union, in turn, accepted these new levels in principle. Regarding the reduction of armaments, the United States proposed in the Sub-Committee that there be an exchange of lists of armaments which the governments would be willing to withdraw from their national armories and turn over to internationally supervised depots located in their own territory. The Soviet Union accepted in principle this method of dealing with the armaments during the first stage.

There was no agreement, however, on related technical questions—for example, the definition of conventional weapons—or on the conditions for progressing from one stage to the next. For example, the Western powers continued to insist that the second and third stages should be linked to progress towards settlement of political issues, while the Soviet Union urged that they be carried out unconditionally.

The USSR proposed a fifteen per cent reduction of defense expenditure. The West, observing that the question of control was extremely complex, proposed, as part of its package plan, the disclosure each year of information on military budgets for the preceding year. Whereas the West maintained that expenditure reduction should be the consequence of the reduction of armed forces and armaments, the Soviet Union maintained that reduction of defense budgets was a simple measure which might serve as a separate first step.

INTERNATIONAL CONTROL

Both sides were in agreement that a control organ to supervise a disarmament treaty should be established under the aegis of the Security Council. While both agreed that there should be moderate or partial controls for partial disarmament, the precise details remained to be elaborated. The West proposed that a committee of experts be set up to elaborate the details of a control system to detect tests before agreement was reached in principle, while the Soviet Union insisted on agreement on substance before details of controls were worked out.

REGIONAL DISARMAMENT

The Soviet Union proposed as a first step the reduction of forces stationed in the two parts of Germany and in the territory of other members of the North Atlantic and Warsaw Alliances. It also proposed the dismantling of some foreign military bases during the first stage of a partial disarmament plan. The Western powers, on the other hand, contended that regional arms limitation and regulation should be a consequence of disarmament and not a first step.

MISSILES AND OTHER OUTER SPACE OBJECTS

The United States suggested that tests of outer space missiles might be participated in reciprocally and internationally and declared its willingness to prohibit, under international control, the production and the sending of missiles through outer space for military purposes. At the same time, the United States suggested that those missiles already developed should be brought within a partial disarmament agreement.

The Soviet Union, on the other hand, proposed that states assume, as a first step, a solemn obligation not to use rocket weapons with nuclear warheads during a first-stage disarmament program and that during a second stage, simultaneously with the elimination of nuclear weapons, control should be instituted over all types of rockets suitable for use as nuclear weapons. It also linked the control of long-range missiles with the liquidation of United States bases in Europe and the Middle East.

Towards the end of the Sub-Committee discussions, the Western powers proposed, as part of a partial disarmament plan, an undertaking to cooperate in the establishment of a technical committee within three months after the entry into force of the Convention to study the design of an inspection system for objects entering outer space.

Resolutions Adopted

by the General Assembly at the Twelfth Session

At its twelfth session in 1957 the General Assembly considered the report of the Disarmament Commission containing the reports of the Sub-Committee. The Soviet Union pressed its proposal for an immediate and separate suspension of nuclear weapons tests, while the Western powers sought support for their package proposals. The General Assembly adopted a resolution urging that priority be given to reaching a disarmament agreement which "upon entry into force" would provide for the following:

1. Immediate suspension of testing of nuclear weapons with prompt installation of effective international control;
2. Cessation of production of fissionable materials for weapons purposes under effective international control;

3. Reduction of nuclear weapons stockpiles through transfer to peaceful purposes;
4. Reduction of armed forces and armaments;
5. Progressive establishment of ground and aerial inspection to guard against surprise attack;
6. Joint study of an inspection system designed to ensure that outer space will be used exclusively for peaceful and scientific purposes.

The Sub-Committee was requested to establish groups of technical experts to study inspection systems and to report to the Disarmament Commission by April 30, 1958.

Also at the twelfth session the Soviet Union sought to change the composition of the Disarmament Commission and its Sub-Committee on the grounds that their composition was weighted in favor of the North Atlantic Alliance and that they had failed to bring about agreement. The Soviet Union proposed, as a basis of representation in the Commission, parity between the Western powers on the one hand, and the socialist countries and neutrals on the other. The General Assembly on November 19, 1957, agreed to enlarge the Commission to twenty-five members, but the Soviet Union declared that the membership remained unbalanced and that therefore it would not take part in the work of the Commission or its Sub-Committee.

Enlargement of the Disarmament Commission and Appointment of Ten-Nation Committee

At the thirteenth session, in 1958, the General Assembly decided to enlarge the Disarmament Commission for 1959 and on an *ad hoc* basis, to include all members of the United Nations. However, the Commission did not meet until shortly before the fourteenth session, at which time it had before it the communiqué of the Foreign Ministers' Conference on the creation of a new Ten-Nation Disarmament Committee composed of, on the one hand, Canada, France, Italy, the United Kingdom and the United States and, on the other, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Romania and the USSR. The Disarmament Commission welcomed the resumption of negotiations on disarmament in the Ten-Nation Disarmament Committee and the intention of the Committee to keep the Commission informed and recommended that the Assembly continue the Disarmament Commission of eighty-two members in being. The Assembly, in turn, acted favorably upon the Commission's recommendation. The question of general and complete disarmament and the question of the prevention of the wider dissemination of nuclear weapons were referred specifically to the Ten-Nation Disarmament Committee for consideration.

The Committee agreed to hold its first meeting in Geneva on March 15, 1960. After a first round of discussion, the Conference

adjourned on April 20 and reconvened on June 7. On June 27, the delegations from Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Romania and the USSR withdrew from the Conference on the ground that the Western delegations were not interested in general and complete disarmament and that the continuation of discussion was fruitless and deceptive. The Conference adjourned on June 28 after a meeting attended only by the delegations of the Western powers.

General and Complete Disarmament

The fourteenth session of the General Assembly once again focused attention on comprehensive disarmament schemes.

On September 17, 1959, the United Kingdom representative submitted an outline of a new comprehensive plan to take place in three balanced stages towards the abolition of all weapons of mass destruction and towards the reduction of other weapons and armed forces to levels which would rule out the possibility of aggressive war.

On September 18 the Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the Soviet Union, in a "Declaration of the Soviet Government on General and Complete Disarmament," proposed a program in three stages for general and complete disarmament so that within four years all armed forces and armaments would be eliminated. The first stage provided for reduction of armed forces by France, People's Republic of China, USSR, the United Kingdom and the United States to a specified level. The level of armed forces of other states would be agreed upon at a special session of the General Assembly or at a world conference. Armaments and military equipment would be reduced to the level fixed for the armed forces.

In the second stage, remaining armed forces would be disbanded and foreign military bases would be eliminated.

The following measures would be taken in the third stage: destruction of all types of nuclear weapons and missiles; destruction of air force equipment; the prohibition and elimination of means of chemical and bacteriological warfare; prohibition of military research and development; abolition of military and paramilitary service; and discontinuance of military expenditures.

A control organ would be established which, upon completion of complete and general disarmament, would have free access to all objects of control. There would be a system of aerial observation and aerial photography, and violations would be submitted to the Security Council or the General Assembly in accordance with their respective spheres of competence. In case the Western powers were not ready to accept this complete disarmament proposal, the Soviet Union would agree to appropriate partial measures providing for establishment of a European control and inspection zone; an atom-free zone in Central Europe; elimination of foreign bases; conclusion of a non-aggression

pact between NATO and the Warsaw Treaty nations; and conclusion of an agreement on the prevention of a surprise attack.

During the debate in the General Assembly, France suggested that disarmament should start with measures prohibiting first the development and then the manufacture and possession of all vehicles for the delivery of nuclear devices, such as satellites, rockets, supersonic or long-range aircraft, ocean-going submarines, aircraft carriers, and launching pads.

On November 20, 1959, the Assembly unanimously adopted a resolution calling upon Governments to make every effort to achieve a constructive solution of the problem of general and complete disarmament. In accordance with the resolution, the declarations of the United Kingdom of September 17 and that of the USSR of September 18, 1959 and other proposals and suggestions, as well as the records of the Assembly, were transmitted to the Disarmament Commission and the Ten-Nation Disarmament Committee for thorough consideration.

Discussions in the Ten-Nation Committee

On March 15, 1960, at the opening of the Conference of the Ten-Nation Disarmament Committee, the Western powers tabled a plan for comprehensive disarmament, which again provided for measures to be carried out in three stages. In the first stage, an international disarmament organization would be established; states would give it information on their forces and armaments; the levels of the forces of the USSR and of the United States would be fixed at 2.5 million men; excess armaments would be put into depots; prior notification to the organization of launchings of space vehicles would take place. At the same time, studies would be undertaken on measures to be carried out in later stages. The second stage would consist of the controlled prohibition of the launching of satellites or missiles for military purposes; controlled prohibition of the manufacture of fissionable materials for weapons purposes and the transfer of such material for non-weapon uses; measures to prevent surprise attacks; reduction of conventional armaments and armed forces of all states; and initial establishment of an international organization to preserve world peace. The third stage would then provide for further reduction of armaments and forces; the prohibition of the manufacture of all weapons of mass destruction and a further reduction of their stockpiles; the elimination of missiles; and the completion of arrangements to preserve world peace.

REVISED USSR PROPOSALS

On June 2, 1960, the USSR submitted to the Ten-Nation Committee new proposals on general and complete disarmament. The first stage

would provide for the elimination of all means of delivering nuclear weapons, together with the elimination of foreign military bases. A study of a cut-off of nuclear weapons production would also be undertaken. The second stage would include conventional and nuclear disarmament measures, while in the third stage provision would also be made for, among other measures, the preservation of peace and security in accordance with the Charter. The new USSR proposal spelled out in detail the principles of a control organization.

In the discussion of the new Soviet proposals, the Western powers acknowledged that the proposals came closer to their views in various respects. They contended, however, that the proposals were not balanced and progressive; the elimination of bases in the first stage was particularly unacceptable to them.

UNITED STATES PROGRAM

FOR GENERAL AND COMPLETE DISARMAMENT

On June 27, the United States representative submitted to the Committee a program for general and complete disarmament under effective control. Like the earlier Western proposal of March 15, this new program envisaged the reaching of general and complete disarmament in three successive stages of progressive, balanced, controlled measures, to be carried out after studies of their feasibility had been prepared by the Ten-Nation Committee.

Among the new elements in the United States proposal were:

(a) The first-stage measures should be agreed upon and carried out by the ten nations, after which further stage measures would be prepared and submitted to a world conference on disarmament;

(b) The passage from one stage to another would be dependent on a decision of the Security Council that the measures from the previous stage had been effectively carried out and that the control organization would be able to observe the next measures;

(c) The reduction, in the first stage, of armed forces and armaments of the principal powers should be to the level of 2.1 million men for the USSR and the United States;

(d) The cessation of production of nuclear materials for military purposes under control and their transfer from stockpiles to peaceful uses would take place upon satisfactory progress in conventional disarmament; and

(e) The placing into orbit of vehicles carrying weapons of mass destruction would be prohibited in the first stage.

While the Soviet proposal provided in the first stage for the complete destruction and prohibition of all vehicles capable of carrying nuclear weapons and the liquidation of all foreign military bases, the United States program, in the first stage, called for prior notification of space-vehicle launchings, establishment of a zone of aerial and

ground inspection, the exchange of observers at military bases, and the institution of on-site inspection at some operational air, naval, and submarine bases and missile-launching pads.

Disarmament Commission Convened

The eighty-two-member Disarmament Commission met at Headquarters on August 16, 1960; it had not met since September 10, 1959. The United States submitted two proposals: (a) it would carry out a cut-off of production of fissionable material on a reciprocal basis with the Soviet Union and would transfer agreed quantities of such material from existing weapon stocks for peaceful uses; and (b) if the Soviet Union were not prepared to join such a plan, the United States would be ready to close, one by one, its major plants producing enriched uranium and plutonium, provided the Soviet Union did the same.

The USSR, however, did not consider practical the United States proposal to cease production of fissionable materials without a prohibition of nuclear weapons. The Disarmament Commission then recommended that the General Assembly deal with the question of disarmament at its fifteenth session.

Consideration at the Fifteenth Session

At the fifteenth session of the General Assembly a number of resolutions on disarmament were submitted but the only two adopted during the first part of the session (September 1960 to February 1961) dealt with the dissemination of nuclear weapons and with cessation of thermo-nuclear tests.

During the second part of the session, on March 30, 1961, the representatives of the USSR and the United States announced to the First Committee that they had agreed to continue, during June and July, their conversations relating to disarmament and to resume negotiations in an appropriate body whose composition was to be agreed upon, and to inform the General Assembly at its sixteenth session of the progress made.

In a resolution, unanimously adopted on April 21, 1961, the Assembly took note of the statements by the USSR and the United States and decided to take up the question at its sixteenth session.

Developments Prior to the Sixteenth Session

In accordance with the statements made on March 30, 1961, the USSR and the United States, on September 20 issued a Joint Statement in which both Governments agreed to recommend the following principles as a basis for negotiations on disarmament:

(a) Disarmament would be general and complete and war would no longer be an instrument for settling international problems. Such disarmament would be accompanied by reliable procedures for peaceful settlement of disputes and arrangements for maintaining peace in accordance with the Charter. States would have only such non-nuclear arms as are agreed to be necessary for internal order and personal security of citizens. States would, further, provide agreed manpower for a United Nations peace force;

(b) The disarmament program would provide for "disbanding of armed forces, dismantling of military establishments, including bases, cessation of the production of armaments as well as their liquidation or conversion to peaceful uses; elimination of all stockpiles of nuclear, chemical, bacteriological, and other weapons of mass destruction and cessation of the production of such weapons; elimination of all means of delivery of weapons of mass destruction; abolition of the organizations and institutions designed to organize the military effort of states, cessation of military training, and closing of all military training institutions and discontinuance of military expenditures;

(c) The program would be implemented in agreed sequence by stages with verification of the completion of each stage. All disarmament measures would be balanced so that at no stage would any state or group of states gain military advantage. All measures would be implemented under strict international control by an International Disarmament Organization (IDO) to be created within the framework of the United Nations. Its inspectors would have unrestricted access without veto to all places as necessary for verification.

Consideration at the Sixteenth Session

On September 25, 1961, the United States submitted a proposal entitled "Declaration on Disarmament—the United States Program for General and Complete Disarmament in a Peaceful World."

In describing the immediate purposes of the new program, President Kennedy, in an address to the General Assembly on September 25, 1961, indicated that it was an attempt "to bridge the gap between those who insist on a gradual approach and those who talk only of the final and total achievement." The President proposed that disarmament negotiations be resumed promptly and continue without interruption until an entire program for complete and general disarmament had not only been agreed upon, but actually achieved. The main elements of the United States proposal were described by the President to be: signing the test ban treaty by all nations; stopping the production of fissionable materials for use in weapons and preventing their transfer to any nation not now possessing nuclear weapons; prohibiting the transfer of control over nuclear weapons to states

that do not own them; keeping nuclear weapons from seeding new battlegrounds in outer space; gradually destroying existing nuclear weapons and converting their materials to peaceful uses; halting the unlimited testing and production of strategic nuclear weapons delivery vehicles and gradually destroying them as well; and earmarking, by all nations, of special peace-keeping units in their armed forces which would be on call by the United Nations.

MEMORANDUM BY THE USSR

On September 26, the USSR submitted a memorandum entitled "Measures to ease international tension, strengthen confidence among states, and contribute to general and complete disarmament." The measures outlined in the memorandum included: freezing of the military budgets of states; renunciation of the use of nuclear weapons; prohibition of war propaganda; conclusion of a non-aggression pact between the countries of NATO and those of the Warsaw Treaty; withdrawal of troops from foreign territory; measures to prevent the further spread of nuclear weapons; and establishment of nuclear-free zones and steps to decrease the danger of surprise attack.

RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED AT THE SIXTEENTH SESSION

On November 21 the General Assembly unanimously adopted a resolution by which it urged the Governments of the USSR and the United States to reach agreement on the composition of a negotiating body which both they and the rest of the world could regard as satisfactory, expressed the hope that such negotiations would be started without delay, and requested the two Governments to report to the Assembly before the conclusion of the session.

On December 20 it adopted unanimously a joint USSR and United States draft resolution by which it welcomed the Joint Statement of principles by the two Governments and endorsed the agreement reached on the composition of a new eighteen-member Disarmament Committee consisting of Brazil, Bulgaria, Burma, Canada, Czechoslovakia, Ethiopia, France, India, Italy, Mexico, Nigeria, Poland, Romania, Sweden, the USSR, the United Arab Republic, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

The Disarmament Committee was requested urgently to undertake negotiations on the basis of the Joint Statement and to report to the Assembly, not later than June 1, 1962.

Developments after the Sixteenth Session

The Eighteen-Nation Disarmament Committee met in Geneva from March 14 to June 1, 1962 and after agreeing on procedural arrange-

ments discussed draft treaties by the USSR and the United States on general and complete disarmament and a number of other proposals on the basis of the Joint Statement of September 20, 1961.

A sub-committee consisting of the USSR, the United Kingdom and the United States considered the question of discontinuing nuclear tests. On April 16 the delegations of Brazil, Burma, Ethiopia, India, Mexico, Nigeria, Sweden and the United Arab Republic submitted a joint memorandum containing suggestions which they commended to the three nuclear powers for consideration in the negotiations regarding a nuclear test ban.

THE EIGHT-POWER JOINT MEMORANDUM

The joint memorandum was an appeal to the nuclear powers to persist in efforts to reach an early agreement banning nuclear weapons tests for all time. The eight powers believed that possibilities existed of establishing by agreement a system for continuous observation and effective control on a purely scientific and non-political basis. Such a system might be based and built upon already existing national networks of observation posts and institutions, or, if more appropriate, on certain of the existing posts designated by agreement for the purpose, together, if necessary, with new posts established by agreement. The existing networks, the memorandum stated, already included in their scientific endeavors the detection and identification of man-made explosions. Improvements could no doubt be achieved by furnishing posts with more advanced detection instruments.

Furthermore, the memorandum continued, the feasibility of constituting by agreement an international commission, consisting of a limited number of highly qualified scientists, possibly from non-aligned countries, together with the appropriate staff, might be considered. This commission, the memorandum suggested, would be entrusted with processing all data from observation posts. All parties would agree to invite the commission to visit sites on their territories to check on suspicious events. The commission would report its assessment of the event concerned to all the parties of the treaty which would be free to determine their action with regard to the treaty on the basis of the commission's report. (*For Assembly action on test bans, see page 45.*)

The USSR expressed its willingness to consider the proposals contained in the memorandum as a basis for negotiations. The United Kingdom and the United States accepted the joint memorandum as one of the bases for negotiations.

The Eighteen-Nation Committee met again from July 16 to September 8, 1962 when it considered, among other things, certain additions and modifications submitted by the USSR to its draft treaty on

general and complete disarmament; amendments submitted by the United States to its outlines of Basic Provisions of a Treaty on General and Complete Disarmament in a Peaceful World; and a number of preliminary studies by the United Kingdom concerning elimination of rockets as nuclear delivery vehicles, verification of the destruction of certain nuclear delivery vehicles, and the technical possibility of international control of fissionable material production.

The Committee also discussed the eight-power joint memorandum and other documents submitted in connection with nuclear weapons test bans.

Consideration at the Seventeenth Session

The question of general and complete disarmament was considered again at the seventeenth session of the Assembly in 1962. The Assembly had before it the two interim progress reports of the Geneva negotiations in the Conference of the Eighteen-Nation Committee.

On November 21, the Assembly adopted a thirty-three-power draft resolution by which, among other things, it took note of the two interim reports; the draft treaty on general and complete disarmament submitted by the USSR; the outline of basic provisions of a treaty on general and complete disarmament in a peaceful world submitted by the United States; welcomed the spirit of compromise which had prompted the two countries to modify their two drafts; and expressed its determination to avert the dangers of nuclear confrontation on which the recent crisis had focused attention.

The Assembly recalled hopefully letters exchanged between Chairman Khrushchev, President Kennedy, and Prime Minister Macmillan in which they had expressed their readiness to resume disarmament negotiations with renewed determination and vigor and reaffirmed the need for early conclusion of an agreement on general and complete disarmament based on the agreed principles contained in the Joint Statement of the USSR and the United States of September 20, 1961.

The Assembly called upon the Conference of the Eighteen-Nation Committee on Disarmament to resume its negotiations at Geneva on general and complete disarmament, with effective controls, expeditiously and in a spirit of constructive compromise, until agreement had been reached; recommended that urgent attention be given by the Eighteen-Nation Committee to various collateral measures intended to decrease tension and to facilitate general and complete disarmament; requested that the Eighteen-Nation Committee report periodically to the Assembly on the progress of its work and, in any case, not later than the second week of April 1963. (*For Economic and Social Consequences of Disarmament, see page 194.*)

Question of the Suspension of Nuclear Weapons Tests

In April, May, and June of 1958 an exchange of letters between the President of the United States and the Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the Soviet Union resulted in a decision to convene a conference of experts to study the possibility of detecting violations of a possible agreement on the suspension of nuclear tests, without prejudice to the positions taken on disarmament. The experts met in July and August 1958 and on August 21 issued a report which concluded that it was technically feasible to set up, within the capabilities and limitations indicated, a workable and effective control system for the detection of violations of an agreement on world cessation of nuclear weapons tests.

This was followed by a conference on the diplomatic level, convened in Geneva on October 31, 1958, to draft a treaty for the discontinuance of tests on the basis of the report of the experts. The conference adopted several articles of a draft treaty as well as the wording of the preamble and an annex.

At its fourteenth session in 1959, the General Assembly considered the problem of nuclear tests. It adopted two resolutions: both urged the states concerned in the Geneva negotiations to continue their present voluntary discontinuance of the testing of nuclear weapons, but one went further and appealed also to "other states to desist from such tests."

French Tests in the Sahara

Also in 1959 the Assembly considered an item submitted by Morocco concerning French nuclear tests in the Sahara. The Assembly adopted a resolution expressing its grave concern over the intention of France to conduct nuclear tests and requested it to refrain from doing so.

On February 13 and April 1, 1960, atomic devices were exploded by the French Government in the Sahara. Following the first explosion, the representatives of twenty-two Asian and African states requested the Secretary-General to summon a special session of the General Assembly to consider the French nuclear tests; however, in the absence of a majority in favor of the proposal, the special session was not convened.

On December 20, 1960, at its fifteenth session, the General Assembly, recalling its previous resolutions on the cessation of tests, urged the states concerned to seek a solution of the few remaining questions so that the conclusion of an agreement on cessation of tests could be achieved at an early date. It also called for the continuation of voluntary suspension of tests.

Except for French tests in the Sahara, there was a test moratorium effective from November 3, 1958 to August 31, 1961, when

the USSR announced its decision to resume nuclear weapons tests. The USSR started its new test series on September 1, 1961.

The United States and the United Kingdom on September 3 jointly proposed to the USSR that the three powers agree before September 9 not to conduct atmospheric nuclear tests and that they rely upon existing means of detection. At the same time, they reaffirmed their desire to conclude a nuclear test ban treaty which would be applicable to other forms of testing as well.

The proposal was rejected by the USSR, and on September 5 the United States announced that because of the resumption of tests by the USSR, it was forced to reconsider its position, and a series of underground nuclear weapons tests was started. On November 3 President Kennedy announced that the United States would conduct atmospheric tests only if it were "deemed necessary to maintain United States responsibilities for free world security."

Resolutions on Nuclear Tests Adopted at the Sixteenth Session

At its sixteenth session the General Assembly adopted five resolutions on the question of suspension of nuclear weapons tests:

On October 27, 1961, a resolution appealing to the USSR to refrain from its intention to explode a fifty-megaton bomb in the atmosphere was adopted.

On November 6 the Assembly expressed its deep concern and regret that test explosions had been resumed, urged the powers concerned to refrain from further tests pending the conclusion of binding agreements in regard to tests or general and complete disarmament, and called for speedy efforts to conclude such agreements.

On November 8 it adopted a resolution proposed by the United Kingdom and the United States, urging the states negotiating at the Conference on the Discontinuance of Nuclear Weapons Tests at Geneva to renew, at once, their efforts to conclude a treaty on the cessation of tests, on the following basis: that it should apply to all nuclear tests and provide for adequate inspection, that the international control machinery should not be subject to the veto, and that the administrative responsibility should be in the hands of a single administrator working under a commission composed of parties to the treaty.

On November 14 a resolution was adopted, sponsored by the Congo (Leopoldville), Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Liberia, Mali, Morocco, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Sudan, Togo, Tunisia, and the United Arab Republic, by which member states were called upon to refrain from carrying out or continuing to carry out nuclear tests in Africa; to refrain from using the territory, territorial waters, or air space of Africa in testing, storing, or transporting nuclear weapons;

and, finally, to consider and respect the continent of Africa as a de-nuclearized zone.

On November 14 the Assembly adopted a draft resolution submitted by twelve African-Asian nations by which it declared that the use of nuclear and thermo-nuclear weapons was contrary to the spirit, letter, and aims of the United Nations, and, as such, a direct violation of the United Nations Charter; that the use of nuclear and thermo-nuclear weapons would exceed even the scope of war and cause indiscriminate suffering and destruction to mankind and its civilization and, as such, was contrary to the rules of international law and to the laws of humanity; that the use of nuclear and thermo-nuclear weapons was a war directed not against an enemy or enemies alone but against mankind in general, since the peoples of the world not involved in such war would be subjected to all the evils generated by the use of such weapons; and that any state using nuclear and thermo-nuclear weapons would be considered to have violated the Charter of the United Nations, to have acted contrary to the laws of humanity, and to have committed a crime against mankind and its civilization.

The Conference on the Discontinuance of Nuclear Weapons Tests resumed on November 28, 1961. The USSR submitted a draft treaty to ban nuclear tests in the atmosphere, outer space, and under water, relying on national systems of detection for supervision of the agreement. It further proposed a moratorium on underground explosions until a control system had been developed as part of a system of control over general and complete disarmament.

On January 16, 1962, the United States and the United Kingdom suggested two alternatives by which the Conference should either resume negotiations on the basis of the 1958 Geneva experts' recommendations, or adjourn while the issue was considered by the Eighteen-Nation Disarmament Committee. The Conference adjourned for an indefinite period on January 29, 1962.

Resolutions on Weapons Tests

Adopted at the Seventeenth Session

At its seventeenth session in 1962, the Assembly on November 6 condemned all nuclear weapons tests, asked that such tests cease immediately and not later than January 1, 1963, and urged the Governments of the USSR, the United Kingdom, and the United States to settle the remaining differences between them in order to achieve agreement on the cessation of nuclear testing by January 1, 1963.

The Assembly endorsed the eight-power memorandum of April 16, 1962 and recommended it as a basis for negotiations (*see page 42*). It further recommended that if the parties concerned did not reach agreement on cessation of all tests by January 1, 1963, they should enter into an immediate agreement prohibiting tests in the

atmosphere, under water, and in outer space, accompanied by an interim arrangement suspending all underground tests, which would include adequate assurances for effective detection and identification of seismic events by an international scientific commission.

As a basis for that arrangement, the Assembly said, the parties should take the eight-power memorandum and should consider other proposals presented at the current session of the Assembly. The Assembly considered that the eight-power memorandum "represents a sound, adequate, and fair basis for the conduct of negotiations towards removing the outstanding differences on the question of effective control of underground tests."

The Assembly asked the Eighteen-Nation Committee on Disarmament to reconvene not later than November 12, 1962, and to report by December 10 on the results achieved regarding cessation of tests.

In a second resolution adopted the same day—November 6—the Assembly urged the Eighteen-Nation Committee to seek the conclusion of a treaty to prohibit nuclear weapons for all time and in all environments under prompt and effective international verification. It requested the negotiating powers to agree upon an early date on which a treaty prohibiting nuclear weapons tests shall enter into force.

Prevention of the Wider Dissemination of Nuclear Weapons

Both at the thirteenth and fourteenth sessions of the General Assembly in 1958 and 1959, Ireland introduced an agenda item entitled "Prevention of the Wider Dissemination of Nuclear Weapons."

At its fourteenth session the Assembly adopted a resolution recognizing that a danger existed in this connection and that consideration of how to prevent the wider dissemination of nuclear weapons was appropriate within the framework of deliberations on disarmament. The Assembly suggested that the Ten-Nation Disarmament Committee consider the problem.

The Soviet proposals submitted in the Ten-Nation Committee on June 2, 1960, provided that, in the first stage, states having nuclear weapons at their disposal would undertake not to transfer such weapons to states which did not possess them, while states not possessing them would undertake to refrain from manufacturing them.

At its fifteenth session, on December 20, 1960, the General Assembly called upon the governments producing nuclear weapons to prohibit dissemination of such weapons to the countries which did not possess them.

At the sixteenth session in 1961, the Assembly on December 4 approved another Irish draft resolution by which it called on all states, and in particular on those at present possessing nuclear weapons, to

use their best endeavors to secure an international agreement under which, first, the nuclear states would undertake to refrain from relinquishing control of nuclear weapons and from transmitting the information necessary for their manufacture to states not possessing such weapons and, second, under which states not possessing nuclear weapons would undertake not to manufacture or otherwise acquire control of such weapons.

Peaceful Uses of Outer Space

The question of the peaceful uses of outer space was debated for the first time in the United Nations in 1958 at the thirteenth session of the General Assembly.

After considering various proposals on the subject, the Assembly appointed an *ad hoc* committee which was to report to the Assembly on the following four points:

(1) The activities and resources of the United Nations, of its specialized agencies and of other international bodies relating to the peaceful uses of outer space;

(2) The area of international cooperation and programs in the peaceful uses of outer space which could appropriately be undertaken under United Nations auspices to the benefit of states irrespective of their economic or scientific development, taking into account the following proposals, *inter alia*: (a) continuation on a permanent basis of the outer space research being carried on within the framework of the International Geophysical Year; (b) organization of the mutual exchange and dissemination of information on outer space research; and (c) coordination of national research programs for the study of outer space;

(3) The future organizational arrangements to facilitate international cooperation in this field within the framework of the United Nations; and

(4) The nature of legal problems which might arise in carrying out programs to explore outer space.

The *ad hoc* committee convened on May 6, 1959, with the following states participating: Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, France, Iran, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Sweden, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The representatives of Czechoslovakia, India, Poland, the USSR, and the United Arab Republic did not participate.

Later that year, the committee submitted a report to the General Assembly at its fourteenth session. On December 12, the Assembly, recognizing the common interest of mankind in furthering the peaceful uses of outer space and the importance of international cooperation in this field, established a Committee on the Peaceful Uses

of Outer Space, with the following members to serve during 1960 and 1961: Albania, Argentina, Australia, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Bulgaria, Canada, Czechoslovakia, France, Hungary, India, Iran, Italy, Japan, Lebanon, Mexico, Poland, Romania, Sweden, the USSR, the United Arab Republic, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The Committee was to review the area of international cooperation and study practical and feasible means for giving effect to programs—to be undertaken under United Nations auspices—in the field of peaceful uses of outer space, and study the nature of legal problems which might arise from exploration of outer space. The Committee was to report on its activities to the fifteenth session of the General Assembly. Further, the Assembly decided to convene, in 1960 or 1961, an international scientific conference “of interested members of the United Nations and of the specialized agencies” for the exchange of experience in the peaceful uses of outer space.

The Committee did not meet prior to the opening of the Assembly's fifteenth session in 1960; nevertheless the Assembly placed on its agenda the item “Report of the Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space.” Toward the end of the session, in April 1961, it was decided to defer consideration of the item until the following session.

The Committee, owing to differences on procedural matters among its members, did not hold its first meeting—an organizational one—until November 27, 1961. It submitted a factual report to the Assembly's sixteenth session.

Consideration by the General Assembly at its Sixteenth Session

At its sixteenth session the General Assembly, on December 20, 1961, adopted a five-part resolution dealing with various aspects of the question of outer space. The first part, relating to the legal aspects of the exploration of outer space, is dealt with below (*see page 442*).

The second part asked that states notify the Committee of the launching of objects into orbit and requested the Secretary-General to maintain a public registry of pertinent information. It also asked the Committee to maintain close contact with governmental and non-governmental organizations concerned with outer space matters, to provide for an exchange of information that governments may supply on a voluntary basis, and to study measures for the promotion of international cooperation in outer space activities.

The third part recommended to all member states and to the World Meteorological Organization (wmo) and other appropriate specialized agencies the study of measures: (1) to advance the state of atmospheric science and technology so as to provide greater knowledge of basic physical forces affecting climate and the possibility of large-scale weather modification; and (2) to develop existing weather

forecasting capabilities and to help member states make effective use of such capabilities through regional meteorological centers.

The fourth part noted the need for effective informational and operational satellite communications and, among other things, recommended that the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) consider those aspects of space communication in which international cooperation will be required, at its forthcoming special conference for the allocation of radio frequency bands for outer space activities.

The fifth part provided for an enlarged membership of the Committee adding to it the following countries: Chad, Mongolia, Morocco, and Sierra Leone.

Meeting of the Committee on Peaceful Uses of Outer Space

The expanded Committee was convened at United Nations Headquarters on March 19, 1962. It established two sub-committees of the whole, one on scientific and technical questions and the other on legal questions. (*For activities of Legal Subcommittee, see page 442*). The Committee, with representatives of UNESCO, ITU, WMO, and the Committee on Space Research (COSPAR) participating in its deliberations as observers, recorded the joint opinion that the aim of its work should be the coordination of activities carried out by the specialized agencies and by governmental and non-governmental organizations in the field of the exploration and use of outer space for peaceful purposes, and that it would be its aim to carry out its work in such a way that it would be able to reach agreement in its work without need for voting.

At the beginning of the Committee's session an exchange of messages between President Kennedy and Chairman Khrushchev was brought to its attention. The leaders had outlined possible areas of cooperation between their two countries in outer space activities; among possible cooperative undertakings mentioned were projects for long-distance communication satellites, satellite weather prediction systems, investigations of the earth's magnetic field, and search and rescue operations for spaceships, sputniks and capsules.

First Session of the Scientific and Technical Sub-Committee

The Sub-Committee met in Geneva in May and June 1962, and invited representatives of UNESCO, WMO, ITU, WHO, IAEA, and COSPAR to participate in its work as observers. Reports prepared by WMO and ITU on the problems of atmospheric sciences and space communications were presented to the Sub-Committee in response to the General Assembly's request in 1961.

The WMO report, after outlining developments in space research and technology, proposed the establishment of a WMO advisory com-

mittee to recommend action required to fill the gaps in knowledge of the atmosphere and its basic physical forces. The report also expressed the belief that full exploitation of new meteorological data necessitated an expansion and rearrangement of the present system whereby conventional meteorological observations are made and exchanged under procedures laid down by wmo. The new system, to be called the World Weather Watch, would be designed to make available to each country processed information best suited to its needs.

The itu report described measures it had taken in the space telecommunication field in response to, as well as before, the Assembly resolution of 1961. It recommended, among other things, that the Extraordinary Administrative Radio Conference be convened in October 1963 to consider questions relating to the use of telecommunications in space exploration.

The Sub-Committee, in the report prepared for its parent body, recommended that the Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space, in cooperation with the Secretary-General who had set up within the Secretariat an Outer Space Affairs Section, compile and organize information provided by governments; that it invite COSPAR, UNESCO, and other appropriate international bodies to make available documents and other sources of useful technical information; and that it arrange with COSPAR to make available information on its activities and those of the World Data Centres for Rockets and Satellites. The Sub-Committee also recommended that the Committee note with approval the action taken in establishing new international programs of scientific cooperation during the period of minimum solar activity, known as IQS (International Year of the Quiet Sun) and the WMS (World Magnetic Survey). Finally, the Sub-Committee agreed on the desirability of establishing equatorial sounding rocket facilities under United Nations sponsorship and drafted thirteen basic principles for their creation and operation.

In July 1962, the Economic and Social Council unanimously adopted a draft resolution which expressed its appreciation to wmo and itu for their reports; noted with approval that both organizations were to continue their activities pertaining to outer space; and requested them to take steps to develop and plan such educational and training programs in space meteorology and telecommunications as might be necessary.

Second Session of the

Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space

The Committee met at United Nations Headquarters from September 10 to 14, 1962. The report of the Committee's Scientific and Technical Sub-Committee was considered, as were the reports of wmo and itu and the Economic and Social Council resolution on the Sub-Com-

mittee's work. The Committee also noted in particular the interest of India in being host state for an international equatorial sounding rocket launching facility on the terms proposed by the Sub-Committee, on the understanding that the project would be a United Nations project in which the principal powers concerned would cooperate.

Consideration by the

General Assembly at its Seventeenth Session

Assembly discussion of the report of the Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space took place for the most part in the First (Political) Committee and concentrated primarily on the development of law for outer space (*see page 442*).

On December 5, two days after the Committee had begun its discussions, the Soviet Union and the United States announced that they had reached agreement on a joint program of cooperation in the peaceful uses of outer space. The agreement stipulated that: in the field of meteorology, a joint working group of technical experts would consider suitable communication links for transferring meteorological data and for the coordinated launching of weather satellites in 1964-65; regarding a world geomagnetic survey, the USSR and the United States would coordinate the launching of two artificial satellites during the period of minimum solar activity known as the International Year of the Quiet Sun; and as to an agreement on satellite communications, the two countries would cooperate in 1962-63 in experiments with United States satellite Echo-A-12.

On December 14, 1962, the Assembly adopted unanimously a draft resolution which noted, among other things, that the application of scientific and technological advances in outer space could bring great advantages to mankind as envisaged in the United Nations Development Decade. It endorsed the recommendations of the Committee concerning the exchange of information, and, noting with appreciation that a number of member states had already, on a voluntary basis, provided information on their national space programs, urged other states and regional and international organizations to do so; urged all member states and appropriate specialized agencies to give support to IVQs and WMS; and endorsed the creation and use of sounding rocket launching facilities under United Nations sponsorship.

The resolution further noted, with appreciation, the prompt initial response of WMO in submitting its report on atmospheric sciences, called upon United Nations members to strengthen weather forecasting services and encourage their scientific communities to cooperate in atmospheric science research, and invited various appropriate organizations to develop programs of atmospheric science research, and of technical and financial assistance.

The Assembly also expressed appreciation for the prompt initial

response of ITU in making available the report on space communications. It declared that communication by satellite offers great benefits to mankind and emphasized the importance of international cooperation to achieve effective satellite communication which would be available on a world-wide basis. The Assembly observed that ITU had asked its members to submit information on technical progress and developments in space telecommunications, subjects which they regarded as appropriate for international cooperation; and, which of these subjects, if any, should be included in the agenda of the Extraordinary Administrative Radio Conference to be held by ITU in 1963.

Finally, the Assembly resolution asked both ITU and WMO to report to the Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space, and to the Council in mid-1963, on progress relating to their outer space activities. (*For Assembly action on legal aspects, see page 442.*)

Effects of Atomic Radiation

On August 4, 1955, the United States requested the inclusion in the agenda of the tenth session of the General Assembly of the item "Coordination of information relating to the effects of radiation upon human health and safety." On August 31, India requested the addition to the agenda of the item "Dissemination of information on the effects of atomic radiation and on the effects of experimental explosions of thermo-nuclear bombs." These two items were considered in the First Committee under the general heading "Effects of atomic radiation."

The General Assembly, on December 3, 1955, decided unanimously to establish a Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation, consisting of Australia, Brazil, Canada, Czechoslovakia, France, India, Japan, Sweden, the USSR, the United Kingdom, and the United States, for the purpose of: (a) receiving and assembling radiological information furnished by members of the United Nations or specialized agencies on observed levels of ionizing radiation on man and his environment; (b) recommending uniform standards with respect to procedures for sample collection and analyses; (c) compiling reports on observed radiological levels; (d) collating and evaluating national reports; (e) making yearly progress reports and developing a summary of the reports received, together with the evaluation; and (f) publishing these documents and evaluations from time to time.

The Scientific Committee submitted a comprehensive report to the General Assembly at its thirteenth session in 1958. This report constituted a broad review of existing knowledge of the levels of ionizing radiation to which man and his environment are exposed, and

of the effects which these radiations may have, and also included indications of research projects of interest.

The General Assembly considered the report of the Committee and, on December 13, 1958, unanimously decided that the Committee should continue its work in cooperation with the international agencies and other organizations concerned. The Assembly urged all concerned to take note of the suggestions made and the views expressed in the comprehensive report and called upon all concerned to assist the Committee in the future by making available to it relevant reports and studies and by pursuing such investigations as might broaden world scientific knowledge in this sphere and transmitting their results to the Committee.

In its annual progress report for 1959 the Committee stated that it had decided to focus its discussion in the immediately forthcoming sessions on radioactive fall-out and radiobiological questions. The report noted that the Committee had received useful information on these subjects from United Nations members and members of the specialized agencies and the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA). It also cited the following nine fields in which further information was needed: stratospheric fall-out mechanism, food-chain problem, studies of exposed groups of populations, adaptation and use of national vital and health statistics for genetic purposes, population studies, human genetics, accidental exposure, hazards of incorporated radioactive atoms, and urgent need of further research in general biology.

At its fourteenth session the General Assembly considered the progress report and approved its recommendations concerning the Committee's future program. In a resolution adopted on November 17, 1959, the Assembly called for studies that would elucidate the effects of radiation exposure on the health of human populations and invited member states, as well as IAEA, the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), and the World Health Organization (WHO) to assist the Committee in its tasks. Finally, the resolution asked the Committee for a report on its studies that would be circulated among all United Nations members and be considered at the fifteenth session of the Assembly.

From September 6 to 9, 1960, in the implementation of the Assembly's resolution, the Committee co-sponsored with WHO a seminar in Geneva on Use of Vital and Health Statistics for Genetic and Radiation Studies; in addition, a Special Service Agreement was drawn up between the United Nations and the International Commissions on Radiological Protection and on Radiological Units and Measurements. An *ad hoc* study group of these Commissions met during 1960 at United Nations Headquarters and in Stockholm.

The Committee submitted its annual progress report to the fif-

teenth session of the General Assembly, which noted with appreciation the cooperation the Committee continued to receive.

The following year, the General Assembly, in approving the Committee's annual progress report, drew attention, *inter alia*, to the Committee's view that the resumption of nuclear test explosions increased the urgency for the intensification of relevant scientific studies. Also, the Assembly invited the World Meteorological Organization (wmo), in consultation with the IAEA and the United Nations Scientific Committee, to examine urgently the feasibility of extending the present meteorological reporting system to include measurements of atmospheric radioactivity.

In 1962 the Scientific Committee submitted its second comprehensive report to the Assembly. The 442-page report, which had been unanimously adopted by the Committee, described the physical and biological aspects of radiation; defined the terms and described the various types of radiation; dealt with somatic effects of radiation; examined the genetic effects on the descendants of irradiated individuals; considered sources of radiation, both natural and man-made; and estimated risks from the various types of radiation.

During the debate on the report in the Special Political Committee, in which thirty-five delegations participated, all speakers expressed concern over the effects of nuclear weapons tests, and there was unanimous support for the conclusions of the report. The Soviet delegation, however, charged that the secretariat of the Committee was practicing discrimination against Soviet scientists in the selection of candidates for posts as scientific secretaries and consultants. This charge was refuted by Under-Secretary Ralph J. Bunche.

In its two-part resolution on the report, adopted on November 20, the Assembly noted, in particular, the Scientific Committee's finding that the exposure of mankind to radiation from increasing numbers of artificial sources, including the world-wide contamination of the environment from nuclear weapons tests, called for the closest attention, inasmuch as the effects might not be fully manifested for several decades in the case of somatic disease, and for many generations in the case of genetic damage. Specifically, the resolution, in its first part, authorized implementation of a scheme proposed by the World Meteorological Organization (wmo) for world-wide monitoring and reporting on levels of atmospheric radioactivity. The Assembly invited wmo to complete consultation with the Scientific Committee and to implement the plan "if found feasible," at the earliest possible date. In its second part the resolution asked the Committee to continue its assessment of radiation risks, and other studies, and to report to the Assembly in 1963.

The Soviet delegation asked for separate votes on the two parts of the resolution, for although it fully subscribed to the conclusions

of the Committee as to the dangers of all nuclear testing and therefore supported the first part, it could not support the second part, since the questions of radioactivity in the atmosphere was being considered by the Scientific Committee and the IAEA, and the inclusion of WMO among the bodies dealing with the matter was hardly justified.

Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy

On December 8, 1953, the President of the United States, addressing the eighth session of the General Assembly, proposed that governments jointly contribute normal uranium and fissionable materials to an international atomic energy agency to be set up under the aegis of the United Nations.

At its ninth session, the General Assembly adopted, on December 4, 1954, a resolution expressing the hope that an international atomic energy agency would be established without delay, and suggested that it should then negotiate an appropriate form of agreement with the United Nations.

The resolution provided that an international technical conference be held under the auspices of the United Nations to explore means of developing the peaceful uses of atomic energy through international cooperation and, in particular, to study the development of atomic power, and to consider other technical areas, such as biology, medicine, and radiation protection, most suitable for effective international cooperation.

The United Nations International Conference on the Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy met in Geneva from August 8 to 20, 1955. A draft statute for the establishment of the agency was drawn up which was circulated to governments, other than those at the Conference, at the end of August 1955 for their consideration and comment. The statute, after further elaboration, was submitted for approval to a conference of eighty-one nations at United Nations Headquarters in September 1956. After a series of amendments, the statute was unanimously approved on October 26, 1956, and was signed by the representatives of seventy nations. A further ten nations signed it in the subsequent ninety-day period during which it was open for signature.

The Conference also set up a Preparatory Commission of eighteen nations, which met first in New York and then in Vienna during 1957 to make preparations for the first General Conference and the first meetings of the Board of Governors of the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA). The first General Conference met in Vienna from October 1 to 23, 1957, and approved in large measure the recommendations of the Preparatory Commission for the program and organization of the Agency for its first year.

At its tenth session the General Assembly noted the impressive results achieved by the Conference in facilitating the free flow of scientific knowledge on the peaceful uses of atomic energy. It recommended that a second international conference for the exchange of technical information regarding the peaceful uses of atomic energy be held under the auspices of the United Nations in two to three years' time.

The second United Nations International Conference on the Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy was held from September 1 to 13, 1958, in Geneva. The agenda of this Conference was wider in scope than that of the first Conference since it covered a new field—the possibility of controlled fusion.

After considering a report by the Secretary-General on the second Conference, the Assembly, on December 13, 1958, unanimously approved a resolution on the subject. In the resolution the Assembly, *inter alia*, decided that the advisory committee established by the ninth session of the General Assembly to assist the Secretary-General in the organization and convening of both conferences be extended as constituted as the United Nations Scientific Advisory Committee. Henceforth this Committee was to advise and assist the Secretary-General, at his request, on all matters relating to peaceful uses of atomic energy with which the United Nations might be concerned.

The Secretary-General and the Scientific Advisory Committee, in consultation with IAEA and the interested specialized agencies, were requested to undertake a thorough evaluation of the second Conference in relation to the need, nature and timing of similar conferences in this field.

In 1960, in his report to the General Assembly at its fifteenth session, the Secretary-General recommended that a third conference be held in Geneva in 1962 or 1963. The Scientific Advisory Committee, in its meeting in New York on November 11, 1960, expressed unanimously the opinion that the third conference should take place in Geneva in the first weeks of August 1963, but the Special Political Committee, to which the item was allocated, did not take any action on this subject because, as the Chairman informed the Committee on April 21, 1961, further consultation on the matter was deemed necessary.

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The General Assembly at its seventeenth session, noting that the General Conference of the IAEA in September 1962 had expressed the belief that a third conference should be held, passed a resolution on November 29, 1962, requesting the Secretary-General, with the assistance of the Advisory Committee and the IAEA, and in consultation with the specialized agencies, to make arrangements for a third conference. The arrangements for the conference, which would be held in Geneva "for ten calendar days in the autumn of 1964" and which would be "considerably more limited in size and cost than those held in 1955 and 1958," would be reported on to the eighteenth session of the General Assembly.

Problems of Reducing International Tensions and Strengthening Peace and Friendship among Nations

Measures Against War Propaganda

Since its second session in 1947, the General Assembly has adopted a number of resolutions containing general recommendations aimed at reducing international tensions and strengthening peace and friendship among nations.

On November 3, 1947, the Assembly condemned all warlike propaganda and asked states to encourage dissemination of information expressing the desires of the peoples for peace. Again, on November 17, 1950, the Assembly condemned propaganda against peace and declared that such propaganda included incitements to conflicts or aggression, measures to isolate the peoples from contact with the outside world, and measures tending to silence or distort the activities of the United Nations or to prevent peoples from knowing the views of member states. The resolutions of 1947 and 1950 were recalled by the General Assembly on December 11, 1954, in another resolution entitled "Strengthening of Peace through the Removal of Barriers to Free Exchange of Information and Ideas." By this resolution the Assembly again called on nations to remove the barriers denying people the free exchange of information and ideas.

Strengthening of Peace

On November 3, 1948, the General Assembly adopted an appeal to the great powers "to redouble their efforts" to secure, as soon as

possible, the final settlement of the Second World War and the conclusion of all peace settlements. The Assembly also endorsed the Atlantic Charter, the Declaration by United Nations, and the Yalta Declaration and expressed its conviction that the great powers would conform to the spirit of those declarations.

On December 1, 1949, the General Assembly adopted a resolution entitled "Essentials of Peace" by which, among other things, it called on nations to refrain from the threat or use of force contrary to the Charter and from any threat or act aimed at impairing the independence of any state or at fomenting civil strife. All nations were asked to cooperate fully with the United Nations. Permanent members of the Security Council were requested to broaden their cooperation and to exercise restraint in the use of the "veto." The Assembly also called for cooperation to attain international regulation of armaments and the control of atomic energy.

Peace through Deeds

A resolution entitled "Peace through Deeds," adopted on November 17, 1950, condemned intervention by a state in the internal affairs of another in order to change its legally established government by the threat or use of force. The Assembly reaffirmed that whatever the weapons used, aggression, whether committed openly or by fomenting civil strife in the interest of a foreign power or by other means, was the gravest of all crimes against peace and security. The Assembly determined that for lasting peace it was indispensable that prompt united action be taken to meet aggression and that every nation agree to accept effective international control of atomic energy, to strive for control and elimination of weapons of mass destruction, to regulate armaments and armed forces, and to reduce to a minimum the diversion of human and economic resources for armaments. These resources, the Assembly stated, should be developed for the general welfare with due regard to the needs of the under-developed areas of the world.

Duties of States in the Event of the Outbreak of Hostilities

On November 17, 1950, the General Assembly adopted another resolution providing, *inter alia*, that states engaged in hostilities should immediately inform the Secretary-General and invite appropriate United Nations organs to dispatch the Peace Observation Commission to the area of the conflict. Moreover, the resolution stated, the conduct of the states concerned in relation to the recommendations embodied in the resolution should be taken into account in any determination by the appropriate United Nations organs of the responsibility for the breach of the peace.

Peaceful and Neighborly Relations among States

On December 14, 1957, the General Assembly adopted a resolution under the above title which referred to the urgency and importance of strengthening international peace and of developing peaceful and neighborly relations among states irrespective of their divergences or the relative stages and nature of their political, economic, and social development; recognized the need to broaden international cooperation, reduce tensions, and settle disputes by peaceful means; and called upon all states to make every effort to strengthen international peace, to develop friendly and cooperative relations, and to settle disputes by peaceful means as enjoined by the Charter.

In December 1958 the Assembly recalled this resolution and reaffirmed the purposes and principles of the United Nations. Member states were asked to live together within the letter and spirit of the Charter and, while making full use of Article 33 of the Charter, to resort to the Organization for the peaceful solution of problems which interfere in friendly relations among states or threaten international peace. The Assembly also recommended that members take practical measures or make arrangements in conjunction with and not inconsistent with programs of the United Nations or its specialized agencies to foster open, free, and friendly cooperation and understanding in the fields of economy, culture, science, technology, and communications. Finally, the Assembly welcomed the agreements between member states which work towards the aims envisaged in the resolution.

Twenty-Year Program for Achieving Peace through the United Nations

In 1950 the Secretary-General circulated to all member states a memorandum containing a series of ten points for consideration in developing a twenty-year program for achieving peace through the United Nations. The memorandum was considered by the General Assembly in 1950, and a resolution adopted noted that progress had already been made with regard to certain points contained in the memorandum. It requested the appropriate organs of the United Nations to give consideration to those portions of the program with which they were particularly concerned.

In 1951 the Secretary-General submitted to the Assembly a progress report noting that still greater determination and effort were required to give even a minimum assurance of peace. The Assembly in a resolution repeated its 1950 request addressed to the appropriate organs.

Year for International Cooperation

On November 16, 1961, India requested that an item "of an important and urgent character," entitled "United Nations Year for International Co-operation," be placed on the agenda of the General Assembly's sixteenth session.

An explanatory memorandum pointed out, *inter alia*, that international cooperation in solving international problems was one of the purposes of the United Nations and that while a great deal of international cooperation existed, conflict and disagreement were aired rather too freely and too frequently. It would accordingly be well to remind world opinion that the principles of the United Nations Charter and the resources of the Organization were, and could be, necessarily a factor of world cooperation and greater fraternity and understanding.

On December 20 a draft resolution calling for the establishment of the year, and which would have had the Assembly appoint a committee to report in 1962 on "the measures and activities that should be undertaken . . . by states and through the specialized agencies and international organizations" was set aside and the entire question postponed until the seventeenth session of the Assembly.

Just a year later, on December 20, 1962, the General Assembly adopted a resolution which asked the President of the Assembly to appoint a 12-member-nation Preparatory Committee to consider the desirability of designating 1965—the twentieth anniversary of the United Nations—as "International Cooperation Year." The Preparatory Committee is to report to the Assembly at its eighteenth session on the feasibility and financial implications of this proposal.

Questions Relating to United Nations Procedure and Organs

United Nations Armed Forces

On February 16, 1946, the Security Council directed the Military Staff Committee to examine from the military point of view Article 43 of the Charter regarding agreements for making armed forces and assistance available to the Council. On April 30, 1947, the Committee presented a report on general principles to govern the organization of such armed forces. The Council accepted a large part of the report but an area of disagreement could not be overcome, and in July 1948 the Committee informed the Council that it was not able to make further progress until agreement had been reached in the Council on the general principles previously reported upon. The Council did not

discuss the problem, and the Committee continued to meet without being able to report any progress on the matter.

Interim Committee of the General Assembly

On November 13, 1947, the General Assembly established the Interim Committee as a subsidiary organ which would function between the Assembly's regular sessions.

The Interim Committee was prolonged for one year in December 1948, and on November 21, 1949, it was re-established for an indefinite period. The Soviet Union and some other states have regarded the creation of the Interim Committee as contrary to the Charter and have never attended any of its meetings.

The Interim Committee has examined a number of political issues and has undertaken studies of several items referred to it by the Assembly.

Appointment of Rapporteurs or Conciliators by the Security Council

In 1948 the Interim Committee in its report to the Assembly made a suggestion to the Security Council concerning the performance of conciliation functions by a rapporteur or conciliator. The Assembly accepted the suggestion and made a specific recommendation to the Security Council on the matter. In May 1950 the Security Council adopted a resolution stating that the Council had decided to base itself, should an appropriate occasion arise, on the principles set forth in the Assembly resolution.

Panel for Inquiry and Conciliation

In its 1948 report the Interim Committee also recommended the establishment of a panel for inquiry and conciliation. The Assembly in April 1949 decided to invite each member state to designate from one to five persons who, by reason of their training, experience, character, and standing, were deemed to be well fitted to serve as members of commissions of inquiry or of conciliation and who would be disposed to serve in that capacity for a term of five years.

In accordance with the resolution, the Secretary-General has from time to time communicated lists of persons nominated by member governments for inclusion in the panel.

United Nations Field Service and Panel of Field Observers

Upon recommendation by the Secretary-General, the General Assembly adopted a resolution in November 1949 according to which the Sec-

Secretary-General had authority to establish a United Nations Field Service, to provide certain technical services to United Nations field missions, and a United Nations Panel of Field Observers composed of a list of names of qualified persons to assist United Nations missions in the functions of observation and supervision.

Since its establishment in 1949, the United Nations Field Service has rendered continuous services to United Nations missions around the world. Nominations made by member governments to the Panel of Field Observers have been duly listed and kept on file, but military observers lent by members for service with United Nations missions have not generally been selected from those named to serve on the Panel.

Voting in the Security Council

Article 27 of the Charter provides that, with two exceptions, decisions of the Security Council on non-procedural matters must be made by an affirmative vote of seven members, "including the concurring votes of the permanent members." A negative vote by a permanent member in such a case is popularly called the "veto." Many delegations had expressed concern at the effect of the veto application on the work of the Council, and the General Assembly at its first, second, and third sessions adopted various resolutions aimed at the restriction of the use of this right.

The question was referred by the Assembly for study to the Interim Committee, and the issue was raised in the Security Council itself in 1947 and was assigned to its Committee of Experts.

No decision was taken on the matter but on October 18, 1949, the President of the Council stated, on behalf of the five permanent members, that while no agreement had been reached on the Assembly's recommendation that the permanent members seek agreement on possible decisions by the Council on which they might forebear to exercise their veto, the consultations had indicated that agreement in principle existed on the practice of consultation before important decisions were taken.

Recognition by the United Nations of the Representation of a Member State

In January 1950 the Security Council referred to its Committee of Experts two proposals submitted by India with a view to amending Rule 13 of its provisional rules of procedure. One of those proposals dealt with representation; the other with credentials. The majority of the Committee maintained that the General Assembly should be the organ to initiate study of, and seek uniformity and coordination with respect to, the procedure governing representation and credentials;

it did, however, agree that the right of the Council to deal with any issue relating to the representation or credentials of its members was not open to question. The Council subsequently adopted an amendment to Rule 13 of its provisional rules of procedure, specifying by whom the credentials of its members should be issued.

On December 14, 1950, the General Assembly adopted a resolution whereby it recommended, *inter alia*: (a) that whenever more than one authority claimed to be the government entitled to represent a member state in the United Nations and this question became the subject of controversy, the question should be considered in the light of the purposes and principles of the Charter and the circumstances of each case; (b) that when any such question arose, it should be considered by the General Assembly, or by the Interim Committee if the Assembly was not in session; and (c) that the attitude adopted by the Assembly or its Interim Committee concerning any such question should be taken into account by other organs of the United Nations and by the specialized agencies.

Uniting for Peace: The Peace Observation Commission and the Collective Measures Committee

At its fifth session the General Assembly, under the title "United Action for Peace," considered proposals to enable the Assembly to perform more effectively the functions entrusted to it by the Charter in the field of international peace and security. Three resolutions were adopted on November 3, 1950, under the title "Uniting for Peace."

Resolution A included provision for: (1) emergency special sessions of the General Assembly on twenty-four hours' notice on the vote of any seven members of the Security Council or a majority of the members of the United Nations if the Security Council, because of a lack of unanimity among the permanent members, failed to act in any case where there appeared to be a threat to the peace, breach of the peace, or act of aggression; (2) establishment of a Peace Observation Commission composed of representatives of fourteen member states, including the five permanent members of the Security Council, to observe and report on the situation in any area where international tension threatened international peace and security; (3) maintenance by member states of elements of their national armed forces for prompt availability as United Nations units, and the appointment by the Secretary-General of a panel of military experts to give technical advice to member states on request; and (4) establishment of a Collective Measures Committee composed of representatives of fourteen member states to study and report on methods which might be used collectively to maintain and strengthen international peace and security.

Resolution B recommended that the Security Council take the necessary steps to ensure that the provisions of the Charter—in particular, Chapters V, VI, and VII—were applied in connection with threats to the peace, breaches of the peace, or acts of aggression and with respect to the peaceful settlement of disputes or situations likely to endanger the maintenance of international peace and security; and to devise measures for the earliest application of Articles 43, 45, 46, and 47 of the Charter.

Resolution C recommended that the permanent members of the Security Council meet and discuss, collectively or otherwise, and, if necessary, with other states concerned, all problems likely to threaten international peace and hamper the activities of the United Nations, with a view to resolving fundamental differences and reaching agreement in accordance with the spirit and letter of the Charter.

Peace Observation Commission. Resolution A stipulated the membership of the Peace Observation Commission for 1951 and 1952; this membership has been renewed by the Assembly with some changes at two-year intervals.

In January 1952 the Commission established a Balkan Sub-Commission to conduct observations in the frontier areas of Greece. (*See also The Greek Question, page 157.*)

Collective Measures Committee. The Collective Measures Committee began meeting on March 5, 1951. Its studies were concentrated on the problems of the preparedness of states and on techniques, machinery, and procedures relating to the coordination of national and international action in the fields of political, economic and financial, and military collective measures.

In accordance with the Assembly's directives in 1954, the Committee remained in a position to pursue further studies as it might deem desirable. (*See also under General Assembly, page 13.*)

Charter Review

At the second part of its first session in 1946, the General Assembly dealt with three items concerned with voting in the Security Council—two of which would have called for a general conference under Article 109 of the Charter. The Assembly, in a resolution of December 13, concerned itself only with voting in the Council *per se*, not with a possible Charter review conference. (*See Voting in the Security Council, page 12.*)

At its eighth session the General Assembly considered three items dealing with a possible review of the Charter. They concerned the publication of documents and preparatory studies in connection with a possible Charter review. A resolution adopted by the Assembly on

November 27 requested the Secretary-General to prepare and circulate among member states during 1954 or shortly thereafter (a) a systematic compilation of the documents of the United Nations Conference on International Organization (San Francisco Conference); (b) a complete index of the documents of that Conference; and (c) a *Repertory of the Practice of United Nations Organs*, appropriately indexed.

Most of the documentation requested by the General Assembly was prepared by the Secretariat and circulated to member states before and during the tenth session of the Assembly and periodic supplements to the *Repertory* have been issued.

In conformity with Article 109, paragraph 3, of the Charter, the question of convening a general conference for the purpose of reviewing the Charter appeared on the agenda of the tenth session of the General Assembly.

On November 21, 1955, the General Assembly established a committee composed of all the members of the United Nations to consider, after consultation with the Secretary-General, the question of fixing an appropriate time and place for a conference. The committee was requested to report its recommendations to the twelfth session of the General Assembly; moreover, the Secretary-General was requested to complete and continue the publication program undertaken pursuant to the Assembly's resolution of November 27, 1953.

The representatives of the USSR and Poland stated that their delegations would not be able to take part in the work of the committee or in any action aimed at reviewing the Charter. On December 16, 1955, the Security Council adopted a resolution in which it expressed its concurrence in the Assembly's decision.

At its twelfth session the General Assembly considered the report of the committee and decided, on October 14, 1957, to keep the committee in being and to request it to report with recommendations to the General Assembly not later than the fourteenth session.

In 1959 the committee was unable to make recommendations concerning the suggested conference for a review of the Charter. The General Assembly decided to keep the committee in being and requested it to report, with recommendations, not later than the Assembly's sixteenth session. The Assembly also asked the Secretary-General to continue the work relating to the preparation and publication of supplements to the *Repertory of the Practice of United Nations Organs*.

Again, in 1961, the Assembly, conscious of the fact that international circumstances were not auspicious for a review of the Charter, decided to keep the committee in being and asked it to report to the seventeenth session.

At its seventeenth session the Assembly, on October 23, passed a resolution taking up the recommendations of the committee, which

had met in September. These were: that the committee be kept in being, that it meet no later than July 1963 and report with its recommendations to the Assembly at its eighteenth session, and that the preparation and publication program on the *Repertory* be continued.

**Charter Amendment to Increase the Membership
of the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council,
and the International Court of Justice**

Proposals to enlarge the membership of various United Nations bodies have been made on the grounds that the substantial increase in the membership of the United Nations made such an enlargement necessary.

In 1956, 1957, 1958, and 1959 the following three questions were considered: (1) Charter amendment so as to increase the number of non-permanent members of the Security Council and the number of votes required for the Council's decisions; (2) Charter amendment so as to enlarge the eighteen-member Economic and Social Council; and (3) amendment of the Statute of the International Court of Justice so as to increase the number of judges.

In accordance with a resolution adopted by the General Assembly in 1959, the matter of enlarging the membership of the Security Council and the Economic and Social Council was taken up in the Special Political Committee at the fifteenth session of the Assembly. The discussion revealed widespread agreement on the need to enlarge the two Councils, but the Committee could not agree on how to attain this objective. Consequently, no recommendation was made to the Assembly on the subject.

Strategic Areas under Trusteeship

In April 1947 the Security Council approved a trusteeship agreement under which the United States would administer the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands—formerly under Japanese mandate—as a strategic area according to Articles 82 and 83 of the Charter.

On November 7, 1947, the Secretary-General drew attention to the need for formulating procedures to govern the detailed application to this strategic area of Articles 87 and 88 concerning the functions and powers of the Trusteeship Council. On March 7, 1949, the Security Council, after consultation with the Trusteeship Council, defined the ways in which it could avail itself of the assistance of the Trusteeship Council in performing its functions under the Trusteeship System relating to political, economic, social, and educational matters in strategic areas.

Reports on the strategic Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands are circulated annually to the Security Council by the Trusteeship

Council and by the United States Government. (*See Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, page 377.*)

Draft Convention Concerning a System of Consultation

At its eleventh session the General Assembly considered an item submitted by Argentina entitled "Draft convention concerning a system of consultation." The purpose, Argentina explained, was to establish machinery that would form a part of the general United Nations system through which states might initiate consultations on a world-wide basis if a situation arose which was likely to endanger international peace or security. On January 11, 1957, the Assembly adopted a resolution according to which the Argentine proposal was referred to member countries for their consideration. The Assembly asked that their views be transmitted to the Secretary-General prior to the convening of the general conference to review the Charter.

Admission of New Members

The United Nations began with fifty-one original members. As of December 1962, fifty-nine new members had been admitted. (*See Membership, page 6.*)

Pending applications for membership in the United Nations are:

	<u><i>Date of Submission of Application</i></u>
Republic of Korea	November 29, 1948
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	February 9, 1949
Republic of Viet-Nam	December 17, 1951
Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam	(1) November 22, 1948 (not circulated as a Security Council document until September 17, 1952.) (2) December 29, 1951

Investigation into Circumstances of Deaths of Dag Hammarskjöld and Those Accompanying Him

The untimely and tragic death of Secretary-General Hammarskjöld and fifteen others in an airplane crash near Ndola, Northern Rhodesia, on September 18, 1961, prompted the General Assembly at its sixteenth session to adopt a resolution entitled "An international investigation into the conditions and circumstances resulting in the tragic death of Mr. Dag Hammarskjöld and of members of the party accompanying him." The Assembly decided to appoint a commission of

five eminent persons to carry out the investigation and requested a report within three months. It asked that the commission investigate, in particular, the following: (a) why the flight had to be undertaken at night without escort; (b) why its arrival at Ndola was unduly delayed, as reported; (c) whether the aircraft, after having established contact with the tower at Ndola lost that contact, and the fact of its having crashed did not become known until several hours afterwards, and if so, why; and (d) whether the aircraft, after the damage it was reported to have suffered earlier from firing by aircraft hostile to the United Nations, was in a proper condition for use. All governments and parties concerned and the appropriate specialized agencies were requested to extend their full cooperation, and it was decided to consider the question of offering suitable remuneration to the families of the victims.

On December 8, 1961, the members of the United Nations Commission of Investigation were appointed by the Assembly. By a letter of the same date the Assembly was informed by the Permanent Representative of the United Kingdom that a federal Commission of Inquiry would be established by the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, which would conduct a public inquiry into the accident. On behalf of the Federation, he invited the United Nations to designate a member of this Commission; similar invitations had been delivered to the Governments of Sweden, and the United Kingdom, and to the International Civil Aviation Organization. After careful consideration, the United Nations Commission decided that the United Nations would not appoint a member to the Federation Commission and that the two investigations could be best achieved by cooperation and exchange of information and should be kept separate.

The United Nations Commission met in the Congo (Leopoldville), in the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, and in Geneva between January 24 and March 8, 1962. It took note of evidence submitted to the Federation Commission and to the Rhodesian Board of Investigation, and although it decided not to duplicate the work already done, it did hear ninety witnesses, twenty-five of whom had not previously been heard.

The Commission submitted its report to the President of the General Assembly on April 24, 1962. Its conclusions were that while it had examined all possible causes of the disaster, including sabotage, attack by hostile aircraft, mechanical trouble, and human failure by the pilots; and while it had found no evidence to support any of the particular theories advanced, it was not able to exclude the possible causes considered.

The General Assembly on October 26, having considered the Commission's report, passed a resolution which, *inter alia*, requested the Secretary-General to inform it of any new evidence which might come to his attention.

The Organization of Peace

The General Assembly, at its sixteenth session, had before it a draft resolution submitted by Honduras entitled "The Organization of Peace." The resolution took the view that present-day science and technology could "offer new solutions for old problems" and could reveal new ways of reducing or eliminating the causes of antagonism and conflict. It listed a number of measures which the Assembly could take to this end. One would be an invitation to member states to adopt appropriate legislation in their own countries, with a view to establishing government departments or ministerial services for peace and disarmament. Another measure would be the creation of a nine-member United Nations committee to coordinate and encourage scientific studies and activity in this field, and to make recommendations to the next session of the Assembly.

The Assembly postponed discussion of this item in 1961, and again at its seventeenth session.

Improvement of the Methods of Work of the General Assembly

The President of the sixteenth session of the General Assembly, Mongi Slim, addressed to the Secretary-General on May 3, 1962, a memorandum from the Tunisian delegation on the improvement of the working methods of the Assembly. The memorandum stated that the increase in the number of problems brought before the Assembly every year made it more and more evident that it was impossible for the Assembly to complete its work within the period allocated for the purpose. Thus, it was suggested that steps be taken to adapt the procedure and practice of the Assembly with a view to speeding up its work and achieving optimum effectiveness.

The Assembly, early in its seventeenth session, set up an *ad hoc* committee to study all the documentation, including Mr. Slim's memorandum. The committee, which did not submit a final report to the seventeenth session, was continued by the Assembly, and asked to report, with recommendations or suggestions, to the Secretary-General by May 31, 1963. This report will be considered by the Assembly at its eighteenth session.

Questions Relating to the Middle East

The Palestine Question

PARTITION PLAN

ADOPTED BY THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY IN 1947

On April 2, 1947, the United Kingdom asked that a special session of the General Assembly be called to examine the question of Palestine.

The session, held between April 28 and May 15, 1947, established a Special Committee on Palestine, consisting of representatives of eleven member states, which, after a visit of inspection in the Middle East, presented a report. The document contained twelve general recommendations, a majority plan, and a minority plan. The majority plan called for the partition of Palestine into an Arab state, a Jewish state, and an international regime for Jerusalem, the three to be linked in an economic union. The minority plan proposed an independent federal state comprising an Arab state and a Jewish state, with Jerusalem as its capital.

On November 29, 1947, the Assembly adopted the majority plan. The plan was accepted by the Jewish Agency but rejected by the Arab Higher Committee; the latter advocated the establishment of an Arab state that would protect the rights of the Jewish minority. The Assembly resolution provided that the British mandate over Palestine was to terminate and the British armed forces were to be withdrawn as soon as possible, and not later than August 1, 1948. The Trusteeship Council was to prepare and approve a detailed Statute of the City of Jerusalem. Also under the resolution the Assembly established the United Nations Palestine Commission to carry out its recommendations. The Security Council was requested to take the necessary measures to implement the plan and, if necessary, to consider whether the situation in Palestine constituted a threat to peace, and further, to determine if any attempt to alter by force the settlement envisaged by the Assembly's resolution was a threat to the peace under Article 39 of the Charter.

The reports of the Palestine Commission having revealed a steady deterioration of the situation in Palestine, the Security Council, after studying suggestions for ending violence presented by its permanent members, adopted a proposal calling for a new special session of the Assembly, which met in New York from April 16 to May 14, 1948.

SECOND SPECIAL SESSION OF ASSEMBLY,
AND SECURITY COUNCIL APPEALS FOR A TRUCE

On May 6, 1948, the Assembly approved recommendations which it had requested the Trusteeship Council to present for the protection of the City of Jerusalem and its inhabitants.

On May 14 it decided to appoint a United Nations Mediator for Palestine and to relieve the Palestine Commission of its responsibilities. The Mediator was to use his good offices to assure the protection of the Holy Places and to promote a peaceful adjustment. He was also requested to cooperate with the Truce Commission for Palestine which had been appointed by the Security Council. On May 14 the mandate of the United Kingdom over Palestine expired, and a Jewish state was

proclaimed under the name of Israel. On the following day, the Arab states instituted armed action in Palestine.

On May 20, 1948, the Assembly's Special Committee chose as Mediator Count Folke Bernadotte, President of the Swedish Red Cross.

Meanwhile, on April 17, the Security Council adopted a resolution calling for a truce between the Arab and the Jewish communities in Palestine. On April 23 it established a Truce Commission for Palestine composed of representatives of those members of the Council which had career consular officers in Jerusalem—Belgium, France, and the United States (Syria, which also had a consular officer in Jerusalem, informed the Council that it would not appoint a representative to the Commission). The Commission was to assist the Council in supervising the truce called for in the April 17 resolution.

The Security Council on May 22 called on all governments and authorities to abstain from any hostile military action in Palestine. On May 29 it requested the observation of a four-week truce which became effective on June 11, 1948. On July 7 the Security Council urgently appealed to the interested parties to accept the prolongation of the truce for such period as might be decided on in consultation with the Mediator. The Provisional Government of Israel agreed to extend the truce, but the Arab states refused. Hostilities broke out anew.

On July 15 the Council, invoking Chapter VII of the Charter, ordered all authorities and governments concerned to desist from further military action and to issue cease-fire orders. The Council's resolution declared that failure to comply with this order would be construed as a breach of the peace which would require immediate consideration of enforcement measures to be taken under the Charter.

On August 19, in response to an appeal from the Mediator, the Council warned that both Arab and Jewish authorities would be held responsible for any violation of the truce.

ASSASSINATION OF MEDIATOR

On September 17, 1948, the Mediator, Count Bernadotte, and the Chief of the French observers, Colonel André Sérot, were shot and killed in the Israel-held sector of Jerusalem. The Mediator was succeeded in his functions by Ralph J. Bunche, of the United Nations Secretariat, with the title of Acting Mediator.

ACTION BY ASSEMBLY AT THIRD SESSION IN 1948

On December 11 the Assembly, following the suggestions in a report which Count Bernadotte had prepared before his death, adopted a resolution which, *inter alia*, provided for: (a) the establishment of a Conciliation Commission of three members (France, Turkey, and the

United States), which was instructed to take steps to assist the parties concerned to achieve a final settlement of all questions; (b) the protection of the Holy Places in Jerusalem and free access to them through arrangements under United Nations supervision; and (c) further steps to be taken by the Security Council to ensure Jerusalem's demilitarization, and instruction to the Conciliation Commission to present detailed proposals for a permanent international regime. It further provided that those of the Arab refugees who had fled from Palestine and who wished to return home and live at peace with their neighbors should be permitted to do so, and that compensation should be paid for the property of those choosing not to return and for loss of or damage to property, which should be made good by the Governments or authorities responsible. Instructions were given to the Conciliation Commission to facilitate repatriation, resettlement, or rehabilitation of refugees, and payment of compensation for damaged property. (*For an account of United Nations assistance to Palestine refugees, see page 76.*)

FIGHT IN NEGEV AREA AND CALL FOR ARMISTICE

Meanwhile, large-scale fighting between Palestine Jews and Egyptians broke out in the Negev area of Palestine in October 1948, and hostilities were renewed in November and December. The Security Council, in resolutions adopted on October 19, November 4, November 16, and December 29, called upon the parties to order a cease-fire and to seek an agreement.

ARMISTICE AGREEMENTS

Following negotiations pursued with the Acting Mediator, the Governments of Egypt and Israel signed a General Armistice Agreement at Rhodes on February 24, 1949; Lebanon and Israel at Ras en Naqoura on March 23; the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan (including former Transjordan) and Israel at Rhodes on April 3; and Syria and Israel at Manhanayim on July 20. The armistice agreements instituted mixed armistice commissions to supervise the implementation of the agreements.

On August 11, 1949, the Security Council adopted a resolution which, among other things, urged the parties concerned to negotiate a final peace settlement, either directly or through the Palestine Conciliation Commission; relieved the Acting Mediator of any further responsibility under Security Council resolutions; and provided for the continued service of such United Nations observers as might be necessary to observe the cease-fire and to help in the implementation of the armistice agreements.

WORK OF THE CONCILIATION

COMMISSION AND ACTION BY ASSEMBLY

At the end of 1951, the Conciliation Commission submitted its tenth progress report to the General Assembly. In that report the Commission expressed its belief that neither side was ready to seek the achievement of stability in Palestine through the full implementation of the Assembly's resolutions under which the Commission was operating, and that that unwillingness of the parties made it impossible for the Commission to carry out its mandate.

At its sixth session, on January 26, 1952, the Assembly adopted a resolution urging the governments concerned to make full use of United Nations facilities and placing the primary responsibility for settling their differences on the parties themselves. The Commission was instructed to continue its efforts to secure the implementation of the Assembly's resolutions.

Following the adoption of that resolution, the Conciliation Commission decided to continue to meet at United Nations Headquarters in order to best discharge its obligations.

Its progress report, submitted in June 1958, indicated that, since the attitudes of the parties were unchanged, the Commission had decided to secure the release of Arab refugee bank accounts blocked in Israel and to undertake a program of identification and valuation of the Arab refugee property holdings in Israel.

From June 1958 through December 1962, the Conciliation Commission stated in its seventeenth through twentieth progress reports that its work continued along these lines. The release of Arab refugee bank accounts blocked in Israel and the transfer of safe deposit and safe custody items were proceeding; work, however, on the identification and valuation of Palestine Arab refugee property in Israel had reached the point by December 1962 where the results could serve as "the basis for initiation of any scheme of compensation which may be decided upon."

The Commission had proceeded along yet another line, for in August 1961 it appointed a special representative to undertake a visit to the Middle East to explore practical means of making progress on the Palestine Arab refugee problem. The first report of the special representative, Joseph E. Johnson, was submitted, as an addendum to the Commission's nineteenth progress report, to the General Assembly at its sixteenth session. The report stated that the willingness expressed by the parties to consider a step-by-step process without prejudice to positions on other related issues had led the representative to believe that it would be worth while to continue the effort which the Commission had begun. Mr. Johnson was reappointed in March 1962, made another trip to the Middle East in April and May, and reported to the Commission in August.

The General Assembly, at its seventeenth session, asked the Commission "to continue its endeavors with the Member States directly concerned."

JERUSALEM

The General Assembly adopted, on December 9, 1949, a resolution restating its intention that Jerusalem should be placed under a permanent international regime as a *corpus separatum* to be administered by the United Nations, and providing appropriate safeguards for the Holy Places. The Trusteeship Council was designated to discharge the responsibility of administering authority.

The President of the Trusteeship Council reported in June 1950 that the two Governments of Israel and Jordan had in effect refused to cooperate in carrying out the projected statute. The Council reported this position to the Assembly, which in 1950, at its fifth session, failed to reach a decision.

ACTION OF THE SECURITY COUNCIL, THE UNITED NATIONS TRUCE SUPERVISION ORGANIZATION, AND THE MIXED ARMISTICE COMMISSIONS

Since 1949, the Security Council has been assisted in its consideration of a series of complaints relating to the Palestine question by the United Nations Truce Supervision Organization (UNTSO), an organ composed of international observers and headed by a Chief of Staff (successively Major-General W. E. Riley, of the United States [until June 23, 1953], Vagn Bennike, of Denmark [until August 11, 1954], E. L. M. Burns, of Canada [until November 5, 1956], and Carl C. von Horn, of Sweden). The Chief of Staff supervises, as Chairman of the four Mixed Armistice Commissions, the implementation of the armistice agreements and also reports, as the need arises, to the Security Council.

Since 1951 the Security Council has been seized with a series of disputes and controversies arising from the unsettled situation in the area and from complaints and protests presented to the Security Council by the parties involved. The Council, assisted by UNTSO and the Mixed Armistice Commissions, has repeatedly called upon the parties concerned to observe the General Armistice Agreement, to conform with the decisions of the Council as well as with the decisions of other United Nations bodies, to refrain from the use of force, and to cooperate with UNTSO and other United Nations organs. In particular, the Council has considered the following questions:

Drainage of Huleh River marshes (1951) and works on the west bank of the River Jordan (1953);

Restrictions on the passage of ships through the Suez Canal (1951), the Israel vessel *Bat Galim* (1954), and the freedom of passage through the Suez Canal (1959 and 1960);
Incidents at the villages of Qibya (1953) and Nahhalin (1954);
Incidents in Gaza (1955);
Incidents at Patish and Nahal Oz (1955);
Incident at Lake Tiberias (1955);
Developments in the demilitarized zone (1956, 1957 and 1958);
Developments on the Jordan-Israel armistice demarcation line (1956);
Developments in the demilitarized zone in the area of Government House in Jerusalem (1957 and 1958);
The Problem of Mount Scopus (1957 and 1958);
The incident in the Huleh area in northeast Galilee (1958);
The incident at Ma'ale Habashan (1958);
The incident south of Rafah (1959);
The incident in the southern part of Sinai (1959) and the incident over the international frontier at Sinai (1959);
The developments on the Israel-Syrian armistice demarcation line (1960);
Question of the military parade in Jerusalem (1961); and
Question of military activities in the Lake Tiberias area and in the demilitarized zone (1962).

The Security Council has also considered reports of various authorities and organs of the United Nations, such as those of the Secretary-General, the Chief of Staff of UNTSO, and the Conciliation Commission, and has received a number of communications and complaints from the countries involved in the question, without taking action, other than adopting resolutions.

United Nations Relief for Palestine Refugees

United Nations assistance for Palestine refugees first began in November 1948, when the General Assembly authorized the advance of \$5 million for the purpose of relief; urged all countries to contribute to a special fund; and appealed to the World Health Organization (WHO), the International Refugee Organization (IRO), the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) to accord their full cooperation in the field of relief.

The United Nations Relief for Palestine Refugees (UNRPR) was established on December 1, 1948, and received voluntary contributions of \$35 million from thirty-three governments.

On December 8, 1949, at its fourth session, the Assembly established the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine

Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA) to be financed by voluntary contributions. It also set up an Advisory Commission to advise and assist the Director of the Agency. Under the resolution, UNRWA's functions were primarily to carry out relief and works projects in collaboration with the local governments. The Director of the Agency was requested to submit annual reports to the General Assembly and special reports to the Secretary-General as the Agency deemed desirable.

On May 1, 1950, the assets and liabilities of UNRPR were transferred to UNRWA, which officially assumed responsibility and established its headquarters in Beirut, Lebanon. The mandate of UNRWA was extended successively by the General Assembly, the last extension being for two years ending June 30, 1965.

The General Assembly has considered the question of relief for Palestine refugees at each of its sessions since the establishment of UNRWA on the basis of an operational report submitted by the Director of UNRWA, reviewing the activities of UNRWA for the preceding period and including recommendations for subsequent programs and budgets. The Director of UNRWA and the Advisory Commission have also submitted joint reports, at various times, containing recommendations concerning UNRWA's work. From its fifth to its seventeenth sessions, the General Assembly adopted a number of resolutions pertaining to the work of the Agency.

In view of a serious financial crisis which threatened the Agency's existence, the Assembly at its eleventh session adopted the recommendation of the Negotiating Committee for Extra-Budgetary Funds (appointed at the tenth session) that a special *ad hoc* pledging conference be held. Accordingly, on October 4, 1957, the General Assembly met as an *Ad Hoc* Committee of the Whole so that pledges of voluntary contributions to United Nations refugee programs might be announced.

At the General Assembly's thirteenth session, shortly before the end of UNRWA's mandate, then scheduled for June 30, 1960, the Secretary-General recommended that UNRWA be continued pending the reintegration of the refugees into the economic life of the Near East either by repatriation or resettlement. He pointed out that an accelerated rate of economic development in the region as a whole was a pre-condition for such reintegration.

In his annual report to the fourteenth session, the Director of UNRWA also called for an extension of the Agency's mandate to provide time during which a solution to the whole problem might evolve. UNRWA's role in recent years, the report stated, had focused on the temporary task of providing subsistence, medical care, shelter, and education for the refugees; and the continuing long-term task which aimed at assisting the refugees to become self-supporting.

The report stated that the relief given to the refugees could not, however, be regarded as more than a palliative and their lot con-

tinued to be one of hardship and disappointment. After eleven years of discouragement and tragedy, the chief promise held out to them in the General Assembly resolution of December 11, 1948—a choice between a return to their homes or compensation for their property—continued to be unfulfilled.

On December 9, 1959, the General Assembly adopted a resolution extending UNRWA's mandate for a period of three years to June 30, 1963, directing the Agency to continue its relief program and, in so far as was financially possible, to extend its program of self-support and vocational training.

In his report submitted to the Assembly at its fifteenth session, the Director of UNRWA presented a three-year program for the mandate period ending June 30, 1963. His report to the sixteenth session of the General Assembly was a progress report on the carrying out of that program.

At the seventeenth session of the General Assembly, the Commissioner-General of UNRWA (the title having been changed from Director) reported on the carrying out of the three-year program as follows: expenditure on relief had been held at the per capita level of 1960 and in 1963 would be held at the same total level as in 1962; the Agency had almost kept pace with the standards of the Arab "host" Governments—in meeting the soaring need and demand for education—principally by adding one more year of instruction to the curriculum so that all educationally qualified refugee boys and girls would receive the first nine years of education; the Agency had extensively increased its vocational training and teacher training program so that in 1963 it would complete its eleventh training center (compared with two in 1960) and would be able to graduate some 2,200 students per year (compared with about 300) when these centers were operating at capacity; it had increased the total of university scholarships to some 500 per year; the loan grant program had been carried out along the lines projected in 1959 but on the modest scale of about half a million dollars.

The Commissioner-General also reported that by June 30, 1963, the total number of refugees registered with UNRWA had increased to a total of 1,174,760, of whom 877,888 were registered for full UNRWA assistance. He pointed out that the Agency had inherited ration rolls in 1950 with some 960,000 ration beneficiaries. This reduction had been brought about by the Agency's constant efforts to rectify its relief rolls and also by the efforts of the refugees themselves to become self-supporting. The distribution of refugees by countries or areas had remained approximately the same in percentage terms since 1948. Of the total registered refugees, 639,135 were in Jordan, 268,614 in the Gaza Strip administered by the United Arab Republic, 144,744 in Lebanon, and 122,227 in the Syrian Arab Republic.

The financial situation of UNRWA, the Commissioner-General pointed out, continued to be precarious. In 1963 UNRWA needed to receive about \$3 million more in regular contributions than it had been receiving in order to maintain its relief and general education programs and also to operate the new vocational training and teacher training centers at capacity.

Looking back over the twelve years of UNRWA's existence, the Commissioner-General stated that it now seemed clear that the dominant forces responsible for the continuation of the refugee problem were: the impasse in regard to the basic issues involved, resulting from the deep feelings of the peoples in the Middle East with respect to these issues; the general unemployable status of dependent refugees and particularly of the maturing youth who were deficient in skills; and the overall economic limitations of the "host" countries in absorbing refugees in addition to their own growing populations. While political considerations in the narrower sense had also played a significant role, to a large degree they appeared to be an expression of the more basic factors just mentioned.

On December 20, 1962 the General Assembly adopted a resolution extending the mandate of UNRWA to June 30, 1965, drew attention to the precarious financial position of the Agency, and urged governments to contribute or to increase their contributions to enable the Agency to carry out its essential programs.

The Iranian Question

Early in 1946 the Security Council devoted a number of its meetings to the complaints by Iran that Soviet officials and armed forces had interfered in Iranian internal affairs.

On May 6, 1946, Iran reported the withdrawal of Soviet troops except from the province of Azerbaijan, and fifteen days later apparent evacuation from there as well. Thereupon the Council adjourned discussion of the matter.

The Syrian and Lebanese Question

On February 4, 1946, Lebanon and Syria brought to the attention of the Security Council the fact that British and French troops continued to be present in their territories. A resolution expressing confidence that the troops would be withdrawn as soon as practicable was not adopted because of the negative vote of the USSR, but France and the United Kingdom nevertheless stated that they would give effect to the majority view.

The withdrawal of French and British troops from Syria was completed during the first two weeks of April. On May 9 Lebanon

expressed satisfaction with the outcome of negotiations in which France agreed to withdraw all but a small group of its troops by August 31 and the United Kingdom its troops, except a small liquidation party, by June 30, 1946.

The Anglo-Iranian Oil Question

On September 28, 1951, the United Kingdom asked Security Council consideration of its dispute with Iran: the failure by the Iranian Government to comply with provisional measures indicated by the International Court of Justice in the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company case.

The basic United Kingdom case was that Iran was flouting a decision of the International Court of Justice, causing grave economic loss not only to the United Kingdom but to the entire free world and creating an inflammatory situation which might involve a threat to peace.

Iran contended that the United Kingdom's complaint was baseless and that the Security Council was without jurisdiction in the case. Apart from the fact that the provisional measures of the Court did not constitute a decision and, therefore, even if valid, was not binding, it was not Iran but the United Kingdom which had flouted the principles and abused the processes of law and justice. After six meetings, the Council adjourned on October 19, 1951.

The Suez Canal Question

NATIONALIZATION OF THE SUEZ CANAL

On July 26, 1956, Egypt proclaimed the nationalization of the Suez Canal Company and placed the management of the Canal in the hands of an Egyptian operating authority. The decree provided for compensation to the stockholders in the Canal Company on the basis of the market value of the shares.

At a meeting of the United Nations Security Council on October 13, a resolution was unanimously adopted by which it was agreed that any settlement of the Suez question should meet six requirements which had previously been agreed to in the course of private meetings—held in the office of the Secretary-General—of the Ministers for Foreign Affairs of Egypt, France, and the United Kingdom. The requirements were: (1) there should be free and open transit through the Canal without discrimination; (2) the sovereignty of Egypt should be respected; (3) the operation of the Canal should be insulated from the politics of any country; (4) the manner of fixing tolls and charges should be decided by agreement between Egypt and the users; (5) a fair proportion of the dues should be allotted to development; and (6) in case of disputes, unresolved affairs between the Suez Canal Company and the Egyptian Government should be settled

by arbitration with suitable terms of reference and suitable provisions for the payment of sums found to be due.

Between October 13 and 19 the Secretary-General held private talks with the Minister for Foreign Affairs of Egypt on possible arrangements which had to be studied if exploratory talks among the three Governments directly concerned were to be resumed. Further negotiations, however, were interrupted by the military action in Egypt of Israel and Anglo-French forces and by the blocking of the Canal.

CONSIDERATION BY THE
SECURITY COUNCIL IN OCTOBER 1956

On October 29, 1956, the United States informed the Security Council by letter that armed forces of Israel had penetrated deeply into Egyptian territory in violation of the Armistice Agreement between Israel and Egypt and requested an immediate meeting to consider "The Palestine question: steps for the immediate cessation of the military action of Israel in Egypt." The Council considered the question at four meetings between October 30 and November 1.

On October 30, the representative of the United Kingdom informed the Council that the United Kingdom and French Governments had called upon Egypt and Israel to withdraw their armed forces to a distance of ten miles from the Suez Canal. If on the expiration of twelve hours either or both Governments had not undertaken to comply with these requirements, British and French forces would intervene in whatever strength might be necessary to secure compliance.

Two draft resolutions before the Council calling for Israel's withdrawal behind the armistice lines failed of adoption because of the lack of unanimity of the permanent members.

On October 31 reports were received that French and British aircraft had begun air attacks against military targets in Egypt. The representatives of France and the United Kingdom stated that the Egyptian Government had rejected the Franco-British communication of October 30 and, as a consequence, the United Kingdom and French Governments had intervened. The intervention had as its overriding purposes the safeguarding of the Suez Canal and the restoration of peaceful conditions in the Middle East. The Suez Canal was subsequently blocked when Egypt sank ships in the Canal, closing it to navigation.

Also on October 31, the Security Council, since it lacked the unanimity of its permanent members and was prevented from exercising its primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security, decided to call an emergency special session of the General Assembly, as provided in the Assembly's "Uniting for Peace" resolution.

ACTION AT THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY'S
FIRST EMERGENCY SPECIAL SESSION

The Assembly met in emergency special session from November 1 to 10. On November 2 it adopted a resolution which: (1) urged that all parties involved in hostilities in the area agree to an immediate cease-fire; (2) urged the parties to the armistice agreements promptly to withdraw all forces behind the armistice line; (3) recommended that all member states refrain from any acts which would delay or prevent the implementation of the resolution; (4) urged that, upon the cease-fire being effective, steps be taken to reopen the Suez Canal; and (5) requested the Secretary-General to observe and report promptly on compliance to the Security Council and to the General Assembly.

By November 2, 1956, however, Israel had established control over virtually the whole Sinai peninsula and had occupied Gaza, and on November 4 to 5 controlled the entrance of the Gulf of Aqaba. On the morning of November 2, Anglo-French landings had taken place in the Port Said area.

On November 4 the Assembly adopted two resolutions designed to bring about the implementation of the Assembly resolution of November 2.

On November 5 the Assembly adopted a resolution establishing a United Nations command for an emergency international force to secure and supervise the cessation of hostilities in accordance with the terms of its November 2 resolution. The Assembly authorized immediate recruitment of officers by Major-General Burns, whom it appointed Commander. (*See United Nations Emergency Force, page 85.*)

USSR REQUEST FOR COUNCIL CONSIDERATION
OF NON-COMPLIANCE WITH CEASE-FIRE RESOLUTION
OF NOVEMBER 2, 1956

On November 5, the Security Council convened at the request of the Soviet Union to discuss non-compliance by the United Kingdom, France, and Israel with the decision of the emergency special session of the General Assembly of November 2, and to take immediate steps to halt the aggression of the aforesaid states against Egypt. After a brief discussion on the question of the adoption of the agenda, the Council decided not to include the item in the agenda.

FURTHER ASSEMBLY ACTION
AT ITS FIRST EMERGENCY SPECIAL SESSION

At the meeting of the Assembly on November 7, the Secretary-General submitted his second report on the requested plan for an emer-

gency international United Nations force. At the same meeting the General Assembly adopted a resolution expressing approval of the guiding principles for the organization and functioning of the United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF) as expounded in that report. (*See page 86.*)

Another resolution was adopted on the same day under which the General Assembly, in part, reaffirmed its resolutions of November 2, 4, and 5 and called upon Israel once again to withdraw immediately all its forces behind the armistice lines established by the Armistice Agreement. The United Kingdom and France were called upon once again immediately to withdraw all forces from Egyptian territory.

ACTION BY THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY
AT ITS ELEVENTH REGULAR SESSION

On November 13 the General Assembly, whose eleventh regular session had convened the previous day, decided to include in its agenda the question of the Middle East and of the intervention by Israel, and by France and the United Kingdom in Egypt. On November 24 it adopted a resolution whereby, *inter alia*, it reiterated its call to France, Israel, and the United Kingdom to comply forthwith with its previous resolutions on the withdrawal of their forces from Egypt.

A month later the Secretary-General, in an oral report to the Assembly on December 21, stated, *inter alia*, that on that day the representative of Israel had presented a schedule of withdrawal in two phases, the second of which would involve full Israel withdrawal, understood to mean behind the Armistice Line, at an unstated date. On December 22 the Anglo-French forces completed their withdrawal with UNEF contingents moving in and taking up positions.

The Secretary-General on January 15 and 24, 1957, reported to the Assembly on compliance with the Assembly resolutions. The Assembly in two resolutions on January 19 and February 2 noted the non-compliance of Israel.

On March 1 the Minister for Foreign Affairs of Israel announced to the Assembly that Israel was prepared to withdraw its forces from the Gulf of Aqaba and the Straits of Tiran in the confidence that there would be continued freedom of navigation there for international and Israel shipping. Israel was also making a complete withdrawal from the Gaza Strip on certain assumptions, particularly that UNEF would take over.

The Secretary-General on March 4 informed the Assembly that the Commander of UNEF had reached agreement with Israel's Commander-in-Chief on technical arrangements for the withdrawal.

Four days later the Secretary-General reported full compliance by Israel with the Assembly resolution of February 2.

CLEARANCE OF THE SUEZ CANAL

Meanwhile, the Secretary-General proposed on November 20, 1956, in response to the resolution of November 2 in which the General Assembly had urged that, "upon the cease-fire being effective, steps be taken to reopen the Suez Canal," the Assembly authorize him to negotiate agreements for clearing operations with firms of countries outside the existing conflict.

On November 24 the Assembly adopted a resolution noting with approval the progress made by the Secretary-General in connection with arrangements for clearing the Suez Canal and authorized him to proceed with the exploration of practical arrangements, so that the clearing operations might be speedily and effectively undertaken.

Clearance started on December 27, 1956, and was completed on April 10, 1957, six weeks ahead of the tentative schedule.

FINANCING THE COST OF CLEARING THE SUEZ CANAL

On April 12, 1957, the Secretary-General announced receipt of loans for the Canal clearance operation totalling nearly \$11 million from Canada, Sweden, Liberia, Ceylon, Australia, the United States, the Federal Republic of Germany, Norway, Denmark, and the Netherlands and a pledge from Italy which was subsequently paid. It was estimated that the advances would be sufficient to cover the costs.

On April 24, 1957, Egypt's Minister for Foreign Affairs informed the Secretary-General that the Canal was open again for normal traffic and transmitted a Declaration on the Suez Canal and the arrangements for its operation. In the Declaration the Government of Egypt stated its determination to continue to observe the 1888 Convention and expressed its confidence that the other signatories and all others concerned would do the same. Free navigation for all nations would be maintained within the limits of that Convention, and complaints of discrimination or violation would be referred first to the Canal Authority and, if not resolved, to an arbitration tribunal. In conclusion the Government of Egypt stated that the Declaration, with the obligations therein, constituted an international instrument and that it would be deposited and registered with the United Nations Secretariat. On July 18 Egypt supplemented its Declaration of April 24 by accepting as compulsory the jurisdiction of the International Court of Justice in all legal disputes that might arise between the parties to the Constantinople Convention of 1888 regarding the interpretation or applicability of its provisions.

On November 1, 1957, the Secretary-General submitted a report to the twelfth session of the General Assembly which described the plan of operations, the practical arrangements, and the agreements

negotiated in connection with the clearance of the Canal. The expenditures and obligations incurred by the United Nations had totalled approximately \$8.4 million. The Secretary-General recommended the repayment of the more than \$11 million advanced during the actual operation by the eleven contributing countries by means of a surcharge on Canal traffic, under which a levy of three per cent on Canal tolls would be paid. The procedures would be negotiated with the Egyptian Government and with the other parties to the payment. By that method, it could be estimated, the costs would be reimbursed over a period of about three years.

The General Assembly adopted on December 14, 1957, a resolution which provided that the Assembly authorize the Secretary-General to take the necessary steps to put into effect the recommendations in his report for reimbursing the advances made by contributor countries—subject to reduction by such resources as might become otherwise available—and urged member states to cooperate fully.

Under the good offices of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, the United Arab Republic and the Suez stockholders negotiated a Heads of Agreement, which was signed by the two parties on April 29, 1958. By this Agreement the United Arab Republic undertook to pay £E28.3 million (equivalent of more than \$81 million) as compensation and to leave all the external assets to the stockholders. The Final Agreement, which confirmed the Heads of Agreement, was signed at Geneva on July 13, 1958.

In a report to the General Assembly dated August 1, 1958, the Secretary-General stated that the arrangements for the collection of a three per cent surcharge on Canal traffic—to be paid by all shipping and trade using the Canal—would go into effect on September 15, 1958. The Secretary-General had signed an agreement with the Banque de la Société Générale de Belgique, Brussels, appointing the Bank as agent of the United Nations for the collection of the surcharge. The amount to be recovered, subject to necessary adjustments, was approximately \$8.2 million.

United Nations Emergency Force

On November 4, 1956, the General Assembly requested the Secretary-General to submit within forty-eight hours a plan for setting up, with the consent of the nations concerned, an emergency international United Nations force. The purpose of the planned force was to “secure and supervise the cessation of hostilities” in Egypt. (*See page 82.*)

The Secretary-General submitted a first report later the same day. He suggested that the Assembly establish a United Nations Command for an emergency force in accordance with the terms of its resolution (*see page 82*), that Major-General Burns, then Chief

of Staff of UNTSO, be appointed Chief of the new Command, and that, as a matter of principle, troops should not be drawn from countries which were permanent members of the Security Council.

The following day, November 5, the General Assembly adopted a resolution which established the United Nations Command.

At the meeting of the Assembly on November 7, the Secretary-General submitted his second report. He noted that in its decision of November 5 the Assembly had decided that a force should be set up on the basis of principles reflected in the constitution of the United Nations itself.

At the same meeting the Assembly adopted another resolution which, *inter alia*, expressed approval of the guiding principles as expounded in the second report of the Secretary-General, and requested the Chief of Command, in consultation with the Secretary-General, to proceed forthwith with the full organization of the United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF).

Twenty-four member states offered to participate in the Force. Offers of troop units were finally activated from the following ten states: Brazil, Canada, Colombia, Denmark, Finland, India, Indonesia, Norway, Sweden, and Yugoslavia. The offers from the other fourteen states remained outstanding and available for activation should need arise.

The first UNEF unit to reach Egypt, except for ten observers from UNTSO, arrived on November 15. By early February 1957 UNEF had been virtually brought to its full complement of some 6,000 officers and men from ten member states.

In the same month the Assembly authorized the Secretary-General to incur, through December 1957, expenses for UNEF up to a total of \$16.5 million. The Assembly had previously authorized \$10 million to be shared by member states in accordance with the regular 1957 budget scale of assessments, and it invited member states to make voluntary contributions to meet the remaining sum of \$6.5 million.

On November 22 the General Assembly authorized an additional obligational authority up to \$13.5 million for the period ending December 31, 1957, and, as necessary, an amount up to \$25 million for the continuing operation of UNEF. It decided that the expenses authorized should be borne by members in accordance with the regular scale of assessments.

A number of Latin American countries, though approving the Force, opposed the draft resolution because they considered the scale of assessments neither equitable nor fair. Certain other countries, including the Soviet Union, stated that they would not participate in the financing of the Force. They maintained that UNEF expenses

should be defrayed by the three States which had perpetrated armed aggression against Egypt.

The General Assembly, on December 13, 1958, adopted a resolution which confirmed its authorization to the Secretary-General to expend a maximum of \$25 million for the operation of UNEF during 1958, authorized the Secretary-General to expend a maximum of \$19 million for the operation of UNEF during 1959, and decided that the 1959 expenditures, less special assistance contributions, should be borne by the member states in accordance with the regular scale of assessments. The resolution requested the Secretary-General to consult the member governments concerning the method of financing the Force in the future and to submit a report on the consultations to the General Assembly at its fourteenth session.

In 1959 the Secretary-General reported to the General Assembly that the continuing quiet along the entire line was in no small measure attributable to the presence of UNEF. However, the financial situation of the Force was serious owing to the fact that funds had not been forthcoming from member governments for its maintenance. The total strength of UNEF was approximately 5,350 officers and other ranks, and the countries participating at the end of the year were: Brazil, Canada, Denmark, India, Norway, Sweden, and Yugoslavia. Although some countries maintained that the Force had been established illegally and that its cost should be borne by the states originally responsible for the situation, the Assembly finally adopted a resolution according to which the amount of \$20 million would be assessed against all United Nations members. The cost would be allocated on the basis of the regular scale of assessments, subject to the provision that voluntary contributions pledged prior to December 31, 1959, toward expenditures for UNEF in 1960 should be applied as a credit to reduce by fifty per cent the contributions of as many member governments as possible, according to an agreed formula. If member governments did not avail themselves of these credits, then the amounts involved should be credited to the section of the 1960 budget for UNEF on compensation for equipment, materials, and supplies furnished by governments to their contingents.

At its fifteenth session the Assembly, on December 20, 1960, authorized the Secretary-General to expend up to a maximum of \$19 million for the continuing operation of UNEF during 1961 and decided to assess this amount against all member states on the basis of the regular scale of assessments—subject to certain conditions relating to voluntary contributions—to the assessments of member states admitted to membership during the fifteenth session, and to other member states receiving assistance under the Expanded Program of Technical Assistance.

At its sixteenth session the General Assembly authorized the

Secretary-General to expend, during 1962, an average monthly amount not to exceed \$1,625,000 for the continuing cost of UNEF and decided to appropriate an amount of \$9.75 million among all member states in accordance with the regular scale of assessments for 1962, subject to certain reductions affecting small and less developed countries.

The Assembly asked at this session that the Secretary-General request an advisory opinion from the International Court of Justice on the question of, *inter alia*, whether expenditures authorized in Assembly resolutions relating to the operations of UNEF constitute "expenses of the Organization" within the meaning of Article 17, paragraph 2 of the Charter. (*For the advisory opinion delivered by the Court, see page 422.*)

The Secretary-General's progress report on the Force to the seventeenth session of the General Assembly stated that "virtually uninterrupted peace and quiet" prevailed all along the armistice demarcation line in the Gaza Strip and on the international frontier in the Sinai Peninsula. There had been no case in which UNEF had to employ arms. The confidence of the local population in the prevailing peaceful conditions was reflected in the "markedly increased agricultural development" taking place, often up to the armistice line on both sides. Regret was expressed, however, that there had been no appreciable reduction in the number of air violations, more particularly in the northeast area of the Gaza Strip.

On December 20 the Assembly authorized the continuation of the special account for the expenses of UNEF and expenditures for the maintenance of the Force at a monthly rate not to exceed \$1,580,000 up to June 30, 1963. It also decided to convene a special session before June 30 to consider the financial situation of the Organization in the light of the report of the Working Group of Twenty-One, which is to be completed by March 31. The Working Group is studying special methods for financing peace-keeping operations.

The cost of maintaining UNEF in 1962 was estimated at \$19,836,800.

Complaint by Syria

On October 18, 1957, the General Assembly, at the request of Syria, decided to include in the agenda of its twelfth session an item entitled "Complaint about threats to the security of Syria and to international peace." Syria had stated in a memorandum that the concentration of Turkish troops in close proximity to the Syrian-Turkish border had created an actual military threat to Syria and was conducive to frontier incidents. The Syrian Government requested the Assembly to establish a commission of investigation.

The General Assembly considered the item at six plenary meet-

ings between October 22 and November 1, 1957, but did not take any action.

Complaints by Lebanon and Jordan

CONSIDERATION BY THE SECURITY COUNCIL

On May 22, 1958, Lebanon complained to the Security Council of intervention by the United Arab Republic in its internal affairs.

The Council decided on June 11 to dispatch an observation group to Lebanon so as to ensure that there was no illegal infiltration of personnel or supply of arms or other material across the Lebanese borders. The United Nations Observation Group was composed of three members—Galo Plaza, of Ecuador, Chairman; Major General Odd Bull, of Norway, executive member and chief of staff in charge of military observers; and Rajeshwar Dayal, of India—and a staff of observers.

On July 15 the United States informed the Council that in response to a request by Lebanon for the help of friendly governments so as to preserve the country's integrity and independence, it had dispatched forces to Lebanon, not to engage in hostilities of any kind, but in order to help Lebanon in its efforts to stabilize the situation. The United States forces would be withdrawn as soon as the United Nations could take over, and they were instructed to cooperate with the United Nations Observation Group.

The USSR asked the Council to call upon the United States to cease armed intervention in the domestic affairs of the Arab states and to remove its troops from Lebanon immediately.

The United States proposed that the Council invite the Observation Group to continue and develop its activities.

On July 17 Jordan submitted to the Council a complaint of interference in its domestic affairs by the United Arab Republic and advised the Council that, following requests by Jordan to the United Kingdom and the United States for immediate aid, British troops had landed in Jordan.

The United Arab Republic denied the existence of any threat against Jordan. Sharing that view, the USSR proposed that the Council call on the United States and the United Kingdom to remove their troops from Lebanon and Jordan. Sweden, considering that the United States action in Lebanon had substantially altered the conditions under which the Council had decided to send observers, proposed that the activities of the Observation Group be suspended until further notice. The Council rejected the USSR and Swedish proposals; that of the United States was not adopted because of the negative vote of a permanent member of the Council (USSR).

On August 7 the Council decided unanimously to call an emergency special session of the General Assembly.

THIRD EMERGENCY

SPECIAL SESSION OF THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY

The President of the United States addressed the General Assembly on August 13 and outlined proposals concerning economic development in the area, including the establishment of a regional Arab development institution governed by the Arab states and making use of international capital.

On August 21, ten Arab states—Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, Saudi Arabia, the Sudan, Tunisia, the United Arab Republic, and Yemen—proposed that the General Assembly, referring to the Pact of the League of Arab States, should, *inter alia*: (1) (a) welcome the renewed assurances given by the Arab states to observe the provision of the Pact that each member state would respect the systems of government established in other member states and regard them as exclusive concerns of those states, and that each would pledge to abstain from any action calculated to change established systems of government; (b) call upon all member states of the United Nations to act strictly in accordance with the principles of mutual respect for each other's territorial integrity and sovereignty, of non-aggression, of strict non-interference in each other's internal affairs, and of equal and mutual benefit, and to ensure that their conduct conformed to those principles; (2) request the Secretary-General to make forthwith such practical arrangements as would adequately help to uphold the purposes and principles of the Charter in relation to Lebanon and Jordan in the present circumstances, and thereby facilitate the early withdrawal of the foreign troops from the two countries; and (3) invite the Secretary-General to continue his studies and consult with the Arab countries of the Near East with a view to possible assistance regarding an Arab development institution designed to further economic growth in those countries. The Arab draft resolution was adopted unanimously by the Assembly on August 21, 1958.

On September 29, the Secretary-General reported that the work of the Observation Group in Lebanon had had to be re-evaluated with a view to determining its possible role when the Assembly resolution of August 21 was implemented. In regard to Jordan, P. P. Spinelli, the Under-Secretary in charge of the United Nations Office in Geneva, had been appointed Special Representative of the Secretary-General to assist in the implementation of the resolution.

On the subject of economic cooperation, the Secretary-General had addressed letters to the ten Arab governments which had sponsored the August 21 resolution, suggesting ways in which the United Nations might be of assistance.

The withdrawal of United States troops from Lebanon was com-

pleted on October 25, 1958, and the withdrawal of British troops from Jordan on November 2.

On November 17 Lebanon informed the Security Council that cordial and close relations between Lebanon and the United Arab Republic had resumed their normal course.

On December 9, 1958, the United Nations Observation Group in Lebanon ceased its operation.

Communications Relating to Oman and Muscat

On August 13, 1957, eleven Arab states requested the Security Council to consider "The armed aggression by the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland against the independence, sovereignty and territorial integrity of Oman." The Sultan of Muscat and Oman, however, informed the Council that the matter fell exclusively within his internal jurisdiction. The letter of the eleven Arab states was included in the provisional agenda of the Council on August 20, but the provisional agenda was not adopted.

The question was placed, however, on the agenda of the fifteenth session of the General Assembly in 1960 upon the request of ten Arab countries. The Assembly discussed the item, but because of the shortage of time available, it decided to defer further consideration of the item until its sixteenth session.

At the sixteenth session, the Special Political Committee, on December 4, 1961, adopted a draft resolution which recommended that the General Assembly "recognize the right of the people of Oman to self-determination and independence" and called for the withdrawal of "foreign forces" from Oman. The resolution failed to be adopted by the Assembly.

The Assembly, at its seventeenth session, again considered the question of Oman. The eleven Arab delegations which proposed the item stated that renewed discussion was necessary "in view of the continued policy of repression pursued by the United Kingdom Government and its failure to take steps for ending the conflict on the basis of the recognition of the rights of the people of Oman."

During the Special Political Committee's debate on the question, the sponsors of the item declared that the question of Oman was one of self-determination. They maintained that Oman was a sovereign state which had no legal ties with Muscat and that British military intervention in the country constituted a flagrant violation of historic treaty obligations as well as of the United Nations Charter. They demanded that British armed forces be withdrawn and that their military bases in Oman be dismantled.

The representative of the United Kingdom said that the Sultanate of Muscat and Oman, often called Oman, was an independent coun-

try which had never been a colony. In 1920, the Sultan had signed an agreement with certain tribal leaders of the interior, giving them a measure of autonomy but not independence. A revolt led by the tribal leaders had broken out in 1954, and again in 1957, and the United Kingdom had intervened at the sovereign's request and in accordance with international law. The rebellion had failed. The population of the interior belonged to the same race, spoke the same language, and practiced the same religion as the government, hence the principle of self-determination was inapplicable.

On November 26, a draft resolution was submitted by eighteen powers. By this, the Assembly would, among other things: (1) recognize the right of the people of Oman to self-determination and independence; (2) call for the withdrawal of foreign forces from Oman; and (3) invite the parties concerned to settle their differences peacefully. The draft resolution was adopted by the Special Political Committee.

On December 11, when the matter was taken up by the Assembly, the United Kingdom representative said that he was now authorized to state, on behalf of the Sultan, that, while preserving his position that he did not recognize the right of the Assembly to discuss the internal affairs of his country, and on the understanding that the Assembly did not now take any formal action, he was prepared to invite, on a personal basis, a representative of the Secretary-General to visit the Sultanate during the coming year to obtain first-hand information as to the situation there.

When the Committee's draft resolution was put to the vote in the Assembly, it was not adopted.

Question of Cyprus

At the request of Greece, the General Assembly considered at its ninth session an item entitled "Application, under the auspices of the United Nations, of the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples in the case of the population of the Island of Cyprus." However, no action was taken by the Assembly.

During the tenth session, the item was once more placed on the Assembly's provisional agenda by Greece. The Assembly did not include the question in its agenda.

At its eleventh session, the General Assembly once more received a Greek request for the inclusion of an item on Cyprus in the agenda. This was followed by a request of the United Kingdom for consideration of an item entitled "Support from Greece for terrorism in Cyprus." Both items were combined and on February 26, 1957, the Assembly adopted a resolution under which it expressed the earnest desire that a peaceful, democratic, and just solution could be found in accordance with the principles and purposes of the Charter

and the hope that negotiations would be resumed and continued to that end.

At the twelfth session of the General Assembly an item entitled "The Cyprus question" was again included in the agenda. A Greek draft resolution, as amended, was adopted in the First Committee but was rejected by the Assembly.

On December 5, 1958, the General Assembly, at its thirteenth session, adopted a resolution expressing its confidence that continued efforts would be made by the parties to reach a peaceful, democratic, and just solution in accordance with the Charter.

On February 19, 1959, a settlement of the problem of Cyprus was agreed upon in London between the United Kingdom, Greek, and Turkish Governments and the representatives of the Greek and Turkish communities on the island.

Complaint by Yemen against the United Kingdom

On October 15, 1959, the representative of Yemen, in a letter to the President of the Security Council, stated that British planes had violated his country's air space and that British armed forces had attacked Al-Baidha.

The United Kingdom denied these charges and the Security Council did not take any action on the subject.

Question Relating to the Case of Adolf Eichmann

On June 15, 1960, Argentina requested an urgent meeting of the Security Council to consider "the violation of the sovereign rights of the Argentine Republic resulting from the illicit and clandestine transfer of Adolf Eichmann" from Argentina to Israel.

The Council discussed the matter on June 22 and 23. The Foreign Minister of Israel, who was invited to take part without vote, recognized that the persons who took Eichmann from Argentina to Israel had broken the laws of Argentina and said her Government apologized for this act. Nevertheless, Israel believed that the act should be seen in the light of the "exceptional and unique character of the crimes attributed to Eichmann."

The Council then adopted an Argentine resolution which stressed the essential need of safeguarding the sovereign rights of states and requested "appropriate reparation" on the part of Israel. Before the vote, the Israel Foreign Minister declared that in her Government's view its expression of regret constituted adequate reparation.

The Question of Kuwait

On July 1, 1961, Kuwait asked the Security Council to consider its complaint "in respect of the situation arising from threats by Iraq to

the territorial independence of Kuwait, which is likely to endanger the maintenance of international peace and security." On the same day, the United Kingdom informed the President of the Council that it supported the request of Kuwait.

On July 2 Iraq requested that the Security Council consider its complaint "in respect of the situation arising out of the armed threat by the United Kingdom to the independence and security of Iraq, which is likely to endanger the maintenance of international peace and security."

The Council considered the two items at four meetings, from July 2 to 7. Two draft resolutions submitted by the United Kingdom and the United Arab Republic, respectively, failed to be adopted.

Subsequently, Kuwait stated on October 19, 1961, that the withdrawal of the British forces from Kuwait had been completed and that the Arab League forces had replaced the British in safeguarding the independence and sovereignty of Kuwait.

Questions Relating to Asia and the Far East

The Indonesian Question

UKRAINIAN APPLICATION

The situation in Indonesia first came before the Security Council on January 21, 1946, when the Ukrainian SSR charged that military action against the local population by British and Japanese forces threatened international peace and security. The Council did not take any action.

INDIAN AND AUSTRALIAN APPLICATION

On July 30, 1947, Australia and India drew the Council's attention to fighting between the Netherlands and the Republic of Indonesia. The Council, on August 1, called on both parties to cease hostilities. Shortly thereafter the parties issued cease-fire orders. Some fighting continued, however, and on August 25 the consuls in Batavia of the eleven members of the Security Council were asked to submit joint reports to the Council. The Council also offered its good offices in settling the political dispute through a committee to consist of two Council members, one selected by each of the parties, and a third chosen by those two. The members chosen were Australia (by the Republic of Indonesia), Belgium (by the Netherlands), and the United States (by Australia and Belgium).

As a result of negotiations conducted by this Good Offices Committee, the Netherlands and Indonesia signed a truce agreement on

January 17, 1948, and agreed on eighteen principles as the basis for a political settlement. However, on November 15, the Committee notified the Council that there had been no progress toward a settlement; indeed, there had been an increase in political tension and a rising strain on the truce.

On December 18 the Netherlands denounced the truce agreement and commenced military operations against the Republic. Meeting in emergency session, the Security Council on December 24 called for a cessation of hostilities forthwith and the immediate release of the President of the Republic of Indonesia and other political prisoners taken since the renewal of hostilities. Four days later, it again called on the Netherlands to release the President and the other political prisoners at once.

On January 28, 1949, the Council repeated its call for a stop to all military operations and for the immediate release of all political prisoners. It recommended the establishment of a federal, independent, and sovereign United States of Indonesia at the earliest possible date—with transfer of sovereignty not later than July 1, 1950—and converted the Good Offices Committee into the United Nations Commission for Indonesia, with power to assist the parties in implementing this resolution.

On March 2 the Netherlands notified the Council that it had lifted restrictions on the liberty of movement of the Republican leaders, and it proposed a round table conference at The Hague as soon as possible to arrange for hastening the transfer of sovereignty.

Three weeks later, the Council directed the Commission to assist the parties in implementing the January 28 resolution and in arranging the time and conditions of the conference. Accordingly, at the Commission's invitation, the Netherlands and Indonesian delegations met at Batavia, from April 14 to August 1, 1949, and agreed on the return of the Republican Government to its capital at Jogjakarta, on measures to be taken to halt guerrilla warfare and restore peace, on discontinuance of military operations by the Netherlands Government and the immediate and unconditional release of all political prisoners, and on the holding of a round table conference.

Republican leaders returned to the capital on July 6. Evacuation by Dutch troops and occupation by Indonesian forces were completed under the observation of United Nations military observers. Orders to cease hostilities became effective on August 10 in Java and on August 14 in Sumatra.

The Round Table Conference met at The Hague from August 23 to November 2, 1949. Participating were representatives of the Netherlands, the Republic of Indonesia, the Federal Consultative Assembly (representing areas of Indonesia other than the Republic), and the United Nations Commission for Indonesia.

The Conference drew up a Charter of the Transfer of Sover-

eignty, which stated that the Netherlands unconditionally and irrevocably transferred complete sovereignty over Indonesia to the Republic of the United States of Indonesia and recognized the Republic as an independent and sovereign state. New Guinea, however, was to continue under the Netherlands, but within one year its political status was to be determined through negotiations between the Republic and the Netherlands.

The Conference also adopted a statute establishing the Netherlands-Indonesian Union, the purpose of which was to ensure the co-operation of Indonesia and the Netherlands, particularly in matters of foreign relations and defense and, as far as necessary, in financial, economic, and cultural questions. This cooperation would be on the basis of free will and equality in status, with equal rights.

The General Assembly in December 1949 welcomed the results of the Round Table Conference. The formal transfer of sovereignty to the Republic took place on December 27, 1949. In the months that followed, the United Nations Commission continued to observe the implementation of The Hague agreements.

On September 28, 1950, on recommendation of the Security Council, the General Assembly admitted Indonesia to the United Nations.

Question of West Irian (West New Guinea)

On August 17, 1954, Indonesia requested the inclusion of "The question of West Irian (West New Guinea)" in the agenda of the ninth session of the General Assembly. In view of the unsuccessful negotiations on this question (*see Indonesian Question, page 94*) between Indonesia and the Netherlands, Indonesia said it considered the problem—if left unsolved—a latent threat to the peace and security of that part of the world.

During the Assembly debate, the Netherlands stressed that its administration of West New Guinea constituted a peaceful endeavor to create conditions for the self-determination of the population. A threat to the peace could occur only if Indonesia were to resort to aggressive action. Furthermore, there was no provision in the Charter of Transfer of Sovereignty, to the effect either that Netherlands sovereignty over the territory should cease at the end of the one-year period for negotiations, or that a change in the *status quo* should take place in case the negotiations did not result in an agreement.

Indonesia claimed that West Irian was an integral part of Indonesia and that "complete sovereignty over Indonesia" had been transferred by the Netherlands.

The Assembly failed to take action on the issue and the question was reintroduced at the tenth session, in 1955. On December 16, the General Assembly adopted a resolution expressing the hope that the

negotiations which would commence shortly between the Governments of Indonesia and the Netherlands would be fruitful.

The question of West Irian appeared again in the agenda of the eleventh and twelfth sessions, but the Assembly failed to adopt the resolutions submitted.

At the sixteenth session of the General Assembly in 1961, after the item had been absent from the Assembly's agenda for four years, the Netherlands introduced a draft resolution which noted that the Netherlands was "prepared to implement" the 1960 Declaration on the granting of independence to colonial countries and peoples, and was "prepared to transfer sovereignty to the people of the territory" as soon as possible. But "recognizing the paramount importance of respect for the principle of self-determination," the draft proposed that a United Nations Commission for West New Guinea be set up to inquire into conditions in the territory, the views of the inhabitants, the possibility of a United Nations plebiscite "to register the wishes of the population," and of interim United Nations administration. A second draft resolution, originally sponsored by India, urged the two parties to negotiate but did not mention the principle of self-determination. A third draft, submitted by thirteen African powers, urged negotiations, but stressed the importance of self-determination for the Papuans and, failing agreement by the Netherlands and Indonesia, envisaged a temporary "international system" of administration. The Assembly debate covered all the issues once more but neither the Indian nor the African-sponsored proposals received a two-thirds vote in plenary; the Netherlands draft was not brought to a vote.

In December 1961, fighting broke out in the West New Guinea area between Dutch and Indonesian forces. On December 19 the Acting Secretary-General sent identical cables to the Prime Minister of the Netherlands and to the President of Indonesia, expressing his deep concern over the possibility of a serious situation arising between Indonesia and the Netherlands and expressing his sincere hope that the two parties might come together to seek a peaceful solution to the problem. On January 15, 1962 the Acting Secretary-General sent another appeal, and on January 17, after a naval clash off West New Guinea, he asked that instructions be given to the permanent representatives of the two governments to the United Nations to discuss with him "the possibilities of a peaceful settlement of the whole question in conformity with the purposes and principles" of the United Nations Charter. Both Governments then instructed their permanent representatives to consult with him.

After these consultations, the Acting Secretary-General again appealed to the Netherlands on January 29, this time to agree to the release of Indonesian prisoners "as a humanitarian gesture which might help in easing tensions all round"; the repatriation was completed on March 11.

Meanwhile, the Acting Secretary-General continued his consultations with the permanent representatives of the two countries, and it was subsequently agreed that informal talks would take place between them outside Washington, D.C.

Acting as mediator representing the Acting Secretary-General in those talks, Ambassador Ellsworth Bunker put forward proposals for negotiations between the two Governments. The Acting Secretary-General appealed to the two Governments to resume negotiations on the basis of those proposals on May 29.

On July 13 the Acting Secretary-General announced that talks had resumed between the two countries in the presence of Ambassador Bunker "on the basis of the principles of the Bunker plan." On July 31, the Acting Secretary-General was able to announce that "a preliminary agreement has been reached by the Indonesian and Netherlands representatives in regard to the modalities of the transfer of authority over West New Guinea."

On August 15, at United Nations Headquarters, the representatives of Indonesia and the Netherlands signed an agreement providing for the transfer of the administration of West New Guinea (West Irian) and for the eventual self-determination of the people. On September 20 the agreement was ratified by the two governments.

The agreement provided for the United Nations—the United Nations Temporary Executive Authority (UNTEA)—to take over administration of the former Netherlands dependency on October 1 for an interim period ending on May 1, 1963, after which full administrative responsibility for the territory would be transferred to Indonesia. Also under the agreement, Indonesia would make arrangements for the self-determination of the 700,000 Papuan population of the territory by 1969 by means of an act of self-determination designed to give the people a choice of retaining or severing ties with Indonesia. The act of self-determination will be supervised by the United Nations.

The General Assembly, interrupting its general debate on September 21, approved in a resolution the agreement of August 15 and commended the Acting Secretary-General for his part in bringing about the settlement.

The Korean Question

PROBLEM OF THE INDEPENDENCE OF KOREA (1943-49)

The independence of Korea was first stated formally as a war aim at the Cairo Conference in 1943. In 1945 Korea was occupied by the USSR and the United States so that they could accept the surrender of Japanese troops north and south of the thirty-eighth parallel, respectively. Under the Moscow agreement of December 1945, the occupying powers established a Joint Commission to set up a "Provisional

Korean Democratic Government." The Joint Commission's negotiations in 1946-47 reached a deadlock, and the United States submitted the problem to the United Nations General Assembly in September 1947.

The Assembly on November 14, 1947, created a Temporary Commission on Korea of nine member states to facilitate the establishment of a National Government of Korea by means of duly elected Korean representatives, and to provide for early withdrawal of the occupation forces. The Soviet Union and five other countries did not participate in the voting, nor did the Ukrainian SSR take its seat on the Commission.

Because the Commission was unable to enter North Korea and fulfill its task of observing Korea-wide elections, it consulted the Assembly's Interim Committee and was directed by the latter to implement the Assembly's program in such parts of Korea as were accessible to it. The Commission on May 10, 1948, observed elections only in South Korea, which led to the establishment of a government in South Korea on August 15, 1948. In September a separate government came into being in North Korea. Having considered the Commission's report, the General Assembly declared that the Government of the Republic of Korea had been established as a lawful government in South Korea, based on elections which expressed the free will of the electorate of that part of Korea, and that this was the only such government in Korea. The Assembly recommended the withdrawal of the occupying forces, and, since the unification of all Korea had not been attained, it established a United Nations Commission on Korea of seven member states to lend its good offices to that end.

On July 28, 1949, the Commission reported that it had not been able to make any progress toward unification. It had observed the withdrawal, in June 1949, of the United States forces but not the reported withdrawal of those of the Soviet Union in December 1948. On October 21, 1949, the United Nations Commission on Korea was assigned the additional task of observing and reporting developments which might lead to military conflict in Korea.

COMPLAINT OF AGGRESSION

AGAINST THE REPUBLIC OF KOREA

On June 25, 1950, the Secretary-General was informed by the United States and the United Nations Commission on Korea that North Korean forces had invaded Korea that morning. On the same day the Security Council determined by 9 votes to none, with 1 abstention (Yugoslavia) and 1 member absent (USSR), that the armed attack was a breach of peace, called for immediate cessation of hostilities, withdrawal of North Korean forces to the thirty-eighth parallel, and the assistance of members in carrying out the resolution. (The USSR had not participated in the Council's work since January 13, 1950,

explaining that it did not recognize as legal any decision of the Council until "the representative of the Kuomintang Group had been removed." It resumed, however, attendance at the meetings on August 1, 1950, when the Presidency of the Council again devolved upon it under the system of monthly rotation.)

On June 27 the Council adopted a United States draft resolution noting that the authorities in North Korea had neither ceased hostilities nor withdrawn their armed forces, and recommending that members furnish such assistance to the Republic of Korea as might be necessary to repel the armed attack and restore international peace and security in the area. The vote was 7 to 1 (Yugoslavia), with 1 member absent (USSR), and with Egypt and India not voting but later indicating their positions as abstention from and acceptance of the resolution, respectively.

ACTION TAKEN BY MEMBER STATES AND CREATION OF THE UNIFIED COMMAND

Also on June 27, the United States announced that it had ordered its air and sea forces to give cover and support to the troops of the Korean Government. On June 30 it informed the Council that it had ordered a naval blockade of the Korean coast and authorized the use of ground forces as a further response to the June 27 resolution.

Fifty-one member states expressed support for the stand taken by the Council, while five, including the USSR, together with the People's Republic of China and the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, shared the view that the June 27 resolution was illegal because it had been adopted in the absence of two permanent members of the Council, the People's Republic of China and the USSR. The Soviet Union also declared that the events in Korea were the result of an unprovoked attack by South Korean troops and demanded the cessation of United States intervention.

On July 7 the Council, by 7 votes to none, with 3 abstentions (Egypt, India, Yugoslavia), and 1 member absent (USSR), requested all member states providing military forces in pursuance of the Council's resolutions to make them available to a unified command under the United States. The next day General Douglas MacArthur, of the United States, was designated Commanding General. Subsequently, combatant units were provided by the following sixteen member states: Australia, Belgium, Canada, Colombia, Ethiopia, France, Greece, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, New Zealand, the Philippines, Thailand, Turkey, the Union of South Africa, the United Kingdom, and the United States. In addition, five nations—Denmark, India, Italy, Norway, and Sweden—supplied medical units. The Republic of Korea also placed all its military forces under the Unified Command.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE UNITED NATIONS COMMISSION
FOR THE UNIFICATION AND REHABILITATION OF KOREA

Korea's capital, Seoul, fell on June 28, 1950, and in August the United Nations forces were confined within a small area in southeast Korea. By mid-October, however, following an amphibious landing at Inchon, they had regained almost all the territory of the Republic of Korea and were advancing far into North Korea.

Meanwhile, on October 7, the General Assembly adopted a resolution which recommended that "all appropriate steps be taken to ensure conditions of stability throughout Korea"; established the United Nations Commission for the Unification and Rehabilitation of Korea (UNCURK) of seven member states to represent the United Nations in bringing about the establishment of a unified, independent, and democratic government of all Korea; and recommended that the United Nations forces should not remain in Korea otherwise than for the objectives stated, and that all necessary measures be taken to accomplish the economic rehabilitation of Korea.

INTERVENTION OF THE
PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA IN KOREA

On November 6, 1950, a special report of the United Nations Command informed the Security Council that United Nations forces were in contact in North Korea with military units of the People's Republic of China. A representative of the People's Republic of China participated in the Council's subsequent combined discussion of complaints of aggression upon the Republic of Korea and of armed invasion of Taiwan (Formosa). (*For the latter, see page 117.*) On November 30, because of the negative vote of a permanent member (USSR), the Council did not adopt a resolution calling, among other things, on all states and authorities to refrain from assisting the North Korean authorities, and affirming that it was United Nations policy to hold inviolate the Chinese frontier with Korea. The Council rejected by a vote of 1 (USSR) to 9, with India not participating, a draft resolution condemning the United States for armed aggression against Chinese territory and armed intervention in Korea, and demanding withdrawal of United States forces.

The Security Council, which had been unable to agree on a solution, decided unanimously, on January 31, 1951, to remove the item "Complaint of aggression upon the Republic of Korea" from its agenda.

On December 6, 1950, the General Assembly included the item "Intervention of the Central People's Government of the People's Republic of China in Korea" in its agenda. On December 14, it es-

established a three-man Cease-Fire Group—the President of the Assembly, Canada, and India—to recommend satisfactory cease-fire arrangements in Korea. The Group's program, aimed at achieving a cease-fire by successive stages, was transmitted to the People's Republic of China on January 13, 1951.

After discussing the Chinese reply to the Cease-Fire Group's program, the Assembly adopted a resolution on February 1, 1951, which noted that the People's Republic of China had not accepted the United Nations proposals to end hostilities and found that it had engaged in aggression in Korea. The Assembly called on it to withdraw its forces and nationals from Korea, requested a committee—the Additional Measures Committee—to consider measures for meeting the aggression, reaffirmed the policy of achieving United Nations objectives in Korea by peaceful means, and created a Good Offices Committee (the President of the Assembly, Sweden, and Mexico) to further those ends.

On May 18 the Assembly, in the absence of a satisfactory progress report from the Good Offices Committee, recommended that every state apply an embargo on the shipment to areas under the control of the Chinese Central People's Government and of the North Korean authorities of arms, ammunition, and implements of war, items useful in their production, petroleum, and transportation materials. The USSR and four other members did not participate in the voting on the ground that the matter was exclusively within the jurisdiction of the Security Council.

ARMISTICE NEGOTIATIONS, 1951-53

Armistice negotiations between the military commanders of the opposing sides began in Korea on July 10, 1951. On October 8, 1952, the negotiations were recessed indefinitely because of differences over whether all prisoners of war should be returned, by force if necessary. The United Nations Command was willing to return all except those who would resist repatriation. The other side, however, insisted on the return of all prisoners. A total of about 132,000 prisoners were involved, 121,000 held by the United Nations Command and 11,500 reported by the other side.

Agreement on the exchange of sick and wounded prisoners, in April 1953, led to re-opening of negotiations and settlement, on June 8, 1953, of the larger question of repatriation of all prisoners. The prisoner-of-war agreement which was incorporated in the armistice agreement provided for a United Nations Repatriation Commission of Czechoslovakia, India (Chairman), Poland, Sweden, and Switzerland. No force or threat of force was to be used against the prisoners.

The Armistice Agreement was signed on July 27, 1953, by the

Commanders of the United Nations Command, the Korean People's Army, and the Chinese People's Volunteers, and hostilities ceased. The Agreement established a demarcation line and demilitarized zone; provided that no reinforcing personnel or combat equipment be introduced except on a replacement basis; set up a Military Armistice Commission of representatives from the two sides to supervise and settle any violations of the Agreement; set up a Neutral Nations Supervisory Commission of four—Sweden and Switzerland appointed by the United Nations Command, and Czechoslovakia and Poland by the other side—to observe and investigate troop withdrawals and weapons replacement; recommended to the Governments of the countries concerned a political conference within three months to settle through negotiation the question of the withdrawal of all foreign forces from Korea and the peaceful settlement of the Korean question; and declared that the Agreement would remain in effect until superseded by mutually acceptable changes or by provision in an agreement for a peaceful settlement at a political level between both sides.

Shortly thereafter, the sixteen powers contributing forces to United Nations action in Korea affirmed their determination to carry out the Armistice Agreement and to resist promptly in case of renewal of armed attack.

QUESTION OF A POLITICAL CONFERENCE

On August 28, 1953, the General Assembly reaffirmed United Nations objectives of the achievement by peaceful means of a unified, independent, and democratic Korea under a representative form of government and the full restoration of peace in the area, and recommended that those member states contributing armed forces under the Unified Command should participate in the political conference envisaged in the Armistice Agreement. The participation of the USSR in the conference was also provided for.

In September the People's Republic of China and North Korea rejected the Assembly's proposal. Subsequent negotiations on the conference between the two sides at Panmunjom broke down in December. On February 23, 1954, however, following a meeting in Berlin, the Foreign Ministers of France, the USSR, the United Kingdom, and the United States announced that they would convene a conference at Geneva for the purpose of reaching a peaceful settlement of the Korean question. The conference would be composed of representatives of their Governments, the People's Republic of China, North and South Korea, and other countries whose armed forces had participated in the Korean hostilities.

The conference failed to find an agreed solution to the Korean question. On November 11, 1954, fifteen of the sixteen members of

the United Nations which had participated in the Korean action and had been present at Geneva (the Union of South Africa was absent) reported that the failure of the conference did not prejudice the armistice, which remained in effect. The report included a declaration, to which the Republic of Korea was an additional signatory, of two principles: (1) the United Nations, under its Charter, is fully and right-fully empowered to take collective action to repel aggression, to restore peace and security, and to extend its good offices in seeking a peaceful settlement in Korea; (2) in order to establish a unified, independent, and democratic Korea, genuinely free elections, under United Nations supervision, should be held to constitute the Korean National Assembly, in which representation should be in direct proportion to the indigenous population in Korea.

The Soviet Union, among others, considered the Geneva Conference report biased and inappropriate to serve as a basis of a solution. It supported a program for unification, to be based on an agreement between North and South Korea to be concluded at an all-Korean conference. Free elections, under international supervision and in the whole of Korea, were called for, and the withdrawal of all foreign troops before the elections.

FURTHER DEVELOPMENTS UNTIL DECEMBER 31, 1962

The United Nations Commission on the Unification and Rehabilitation of Korea (UNCURK) continues to represent the United Nations in Korea and to observe and report annually to the General Assembly on political and economic developments in the Republic of Korea. With a view to adapting its procedures to current circumstances, the Commission decided to establish as of January 1, 1956, a committee of four of its members to act on its behalf when the full Commission was not meeting.

The Assembly, while deferring consideration of the question at its sixth and eighth sessions, adopted resolutions at its seventh, ninth, and subsequent sessions.

During 1958, exchanges of notes took place between the British Chargé d'affaires in Peking, on behalf of the governments which contributed forces to the United Nations Command, and the authorities of the People's Republic of China concerning the questions of elections and the withdrawal of foreign troops from Korea.

On October 28, 1958, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea announced that the Chinese People's Volunteers had completely evacuated Korea by October 26 and called for the immediate withdrawal of United States forces from South Korea.

On November 14, 1958, the Assembly adopted a resolution in which it, *inter alia*, called upon the North Korean authorities to accept

a settlement in Korea based on the fundamental principles for unification set forth at the 1954 Geneva Conference.

At its fourteenth session the Assembly, after considering an UNCURK report stating that there had been no apparent disposition on the part of the North Korean authorities to respond to the General Assembly's call to accept United Nations objectives in Korea, adopted a resolution on December 9, 1959, which, *inter alia*, reaffirmed United Nations objectives, called upon the North Korean authorities to accept them, and asked UNCURK to continue its work.

Similar resolutions were adopted by the Assembly at its sixteenth and seventeenth sessions.

While no progress has yet been reported in solving the impasse reached at Geneva, the Armistice Agreement remains in effect.

RELIEF AND REHABILITATION OF KOREA

Following the resolve of the United Nations to repel aggression in Korea and as a consequence of the hostilities that ravaged the country, the task of rehabilitating Korea became a United Nations responsibility. Furthermore, relief to several hundreds of thousands of refugees seeking protection within areas controlled by the United Nations Command had to be provided.

The Security Council on July 31, 1950, inaugurated an emergency program for civilian relief through the Unified Command, with the Secretary-General and, later, the Agent General of the United Nations Korean Reconstruction Agency (UNKRA), acting as clearing agents for requests and offers of assistance. With contributions valued at nearly \$50 million from some thirty-two member states, seven non-member states, specialized agencies, and non-governmental organizations and, in particular, assistance valued at more than \$400 million from the United States, the Unified Command carried out by September 1953, through a Civil Assistance Command, a large-scale civilian and refugee relief program.

The General Assembly established UNKRA on December 1, 1950, "to help the Republic of Korea and its people toward the restoration of their war-wrecked economy." The first Agent General was J. Donald Kingsley, of the United States, appointed by the Secretary-General on February 7, 1951.

The Assembly, at its thirteenth session, received from the Agent General (Lieutenant General John B. Coulter, of the United States), his annual report for the financial year ended June 30, 1958. In this report, which marked the virtual conclusion of UNKRA's operational activities, the Agent General reported that thirty-four United Nations members and five non-member states had contributed over \$141 million to UNKRA and over \$7 million had been received in miscellaneous

income. Although that total was far from enough to meet the full aid requirements of the Korean economy following 1950, it had provided an "impressive measure" of economic help.

OTHER MATTERS RELATED TO KOREA

During and after the hostilities in Korea, the United Nations dealt with several questions related to the United Nations action.

The Security Council on July 7, 1950, authorized the Unified Command to use, at its discretion, the United Nations flag concurrently with the flags of the nations participating in the course of operations against North Korean forces.

The General Assembly on December 12, 1950, requested the Secretary-General to arrange with the Unified Command for the design and award of a distinguishing ribbon or other insignia for personnel who had participated in Korea in the defense of the principles of the Charter of the United Nations.

In December 1952 the Assembly rejected a Soviet draft resolution condemning the United States for the alleged mass murder by United States guards of Korean and Chinese prisoners of war.

The alleged use of bacteriological warfare by the United Nations forces in Korea was discussed in the summer of 1952 by the Security Council and at the seventh and eighth sessions of the General Assembly. (*See page 119.*)

At the request of the United States, the Assembly also discussed during its eighth session the question of alleged atrocities—contrary to the Geneva Conventions—committed in Korea by Chinese and North Korean forces against some 38,000 military and civilian victims. The Assembly in December 1953 expressed grave concern at reports of inhuman practices employed against soldiers of the United Nations Command and against the civilian population of Korea.

In February 1954 the Neutral Nations Commission, appointed under the Armistice Agreement, submitted a final report on its operations. This report and a subsequent one from the United Nations Command were circulated to all member states.

By September 23, 1953, the Commission had assumed custody of 22,604 prisoners from the United Nations Command and 359 from the Korean People's Army and the Chinese People's Volunteers who had not exercised their right of repatriation. Because the political conference envisaged in the Armistice Agreement had not materialized at the end of the ninety-day period allotted for explanation of the right of repatriation, the Commission referred to the two Commands the question of disposition of those prisoners who had not exercised their right of repatriation. Before the Commission dissolved itself on February 21, 1954, the custodial force, India, had restored to the United Nations Command on January 21 some 21,805 prisoners, two-

thirds of them Chinese and one-third Korean, without, however, declaring their civilian status. On January 23 the United Nations Command released these former prisoners to civilian status. On January 28 the custodial force released to Red Cross representatives 347 South Korean and United Nations Command prisoners who had refused to return to the control of that Command. Eighty-eight prisoners elected to proceed to neutral countries and were sent to India to remain under that Government's protection pending a decision on their final disposition.

At the request of India, that problem was discussed at the tenth session of the Assembly, which, on November 29, 1955, adopted a resolution noting with appreciation that Argentina and Brazil had offered to resettle many of the ex-prisoners who so opted and requesting other member governments to accept for settlement those not covered by existing offers.

The question was again discussed by the Assembly at its eleventh session. The representative of India reviewed the status of the eighty-eight former prisoners. The Assembly on January 11, 1957, expressed its gratitude to the Governments of India, Argentina, and Brazil for their cooperation in the problem of ex-prisoners of the Korean war. It also expressed the hope that the ex-prisoners still in India would be settled in the future through the cooperation of member states. In 1961 the representative of India was able to report that all the ex-prisoners who had been taken to India had been resettled in the countries they had chosen.

On December 4, 1954, the United States Government, acting as the Unified Command of the United Nations forces in Korea, complained of detention and imprisonment of United Nations military personnel in violation of the Korean Armistice Agreement. A memorandum explained that in January 1953 a United States aircraft had been shot down and its crew of eleven taken prisoner and sentenced to long imprisonment in November 1954 by a Chinese communist military tribunal. On December 10 the Assembly resolved that the detention and imprisonment of the United States airmen, and of all other captured personnel of the United Nations Command desiring repatriation, was a violation of the Armistice Agreement and asked the Secretary-General to seek their release.

After establishing in January 1955 personal contact in Peking with the Foreign Minister of the People's Republic of China, the Secretary-General continued his efforts. On September 9 his report to the Assembly on the question referred to messages he had received from the Foreign Minister announcing the release in May and August, respectively, of groups of four and eleven United States airmen.

On December 15, 1955, the General Assembly decided that the cemetery at Tanggok, near Pusan, in the Republic of Korea, containing the graves of approximately 2,000 men who had served under

the United Nations Command, should be established and maintained as a United Nations Memorial Cemetery.

A bronze memorial plaque was dedicated on June 21, 1956, at United Nations Headquarters, New York, in grateful remembrance of the men of the armed forces of the member states who died in Korea in the service of the United Nations.

India-Pakistan Question

On January 1, 1948, India reported to the Security Council that tribesmen and others had been invading the state of Jammu and Kashmir and that extensive fighting was taking place. India complained that Pakistan was assisting the tribesmen in the invasion and requested the Security Council to call on Pakistan to stop giving such assistance, since it was an act of aggression against India.

Jammu and Kashmir was an Indian princedom which, under the scheme of partition and the Indian Independence of 1947, became free to accede to India or Pakistan. It borders on both India and Pakistan. After the invasion had begun, the Maharajah of the state requested accession to India, which India accepted on the understanding that, once normal conditions were restored, the question of accession "should be settled by a reference to the people."

On January 15 Pakistan submitted counter-charges against India, alleging that the accession to India of the state of Jammu and Kashmir was illegal, that Indian forces had unlawfully occupied the state of Junagadh and other states, that mass destruction of Muslims was being carried out in a prearranged program of genocide, and that India had failed to implement agreements between the two countries. Pakistan and India agreed that the situation between them might lead to a breach of international peace.

SECURITY COUNCIL ACTION

On January 20 the Security Council established the United Nations Commission for India and Pakistan (UNCIP), to be composed of three members. The Commission was to investigate and mediate, first on the Jammu and Kashmir situation and, when so directed by the Council, on other situations complained of by Pakistan.

India subsequently nominated Czechoslovakia to the Commission, and Pakistan nominated Argentina. When these two states failed to agree on the third member, the President of the Council, on May 7, designated the United States. Meanwhile, on April 21, the Council had decided to increase the membership to five and added Belgium and Colombia two days later.

On April 21 the Council recommended various measures to stop the fighting and to create proper conditions for a free and impartial

plebiscite. To assist in carrying out these measures, it instructed the Commission "to proceed at once to the Indian sub-continent and there place its good offices and mediation at the disposal of the Governments of India and Pakistan."

WORK OF THE UNITED NATIONS

COMMISSION FOR INDIA AND PAKISTAN

The Commission arrived on the sub-continent on July 7, 1948, and on August 13 proposed that both governments issue cease-fire orders at the earliest possible date, to apply to all forces under their control in Jammu and Kashmir, and that they accept certain principles as the basis for a truce agreement. These included: (1) that Pakistan would withdraw its troops recently stationed in the state and do its best to secure the withdrawal of tribesmen and Pakistan nationals not normally resident there; (2) that, pending a final solution, the territory evacuated by the troops would be administered by the local authorities under the surveillance of the Commission; (3) that, when the Commission notified India that Pakistan was complying with these terms, India would begin to withdraw the bulk of its forces in stages to be agreed on with the Commission; and (4) that, pending the acceptance of conditions for final settlement, the Indian Government would maintain within the lines existing at the moment of cease-fire those forces considered necessary to assist local authorities in observing law and order.

Meanwhile India, after a clarification of certain points, accepted the Council resolution of April 21. Pakistan, however, informed the Commission that it could not accept it without certain reservations, in particular the part concerning the organization of a plebiscite. The Commission reported in September that it had temporarily exhausted possibilities of further negotiations.

The Security Council considered the report on November 25, informed the Commission of its full support, and endorsed its appeal to India and Pakistan to refrain from any action which might aggravate the situation. Informal conversations with the parties then took place on the conditions and basic principles which should govern the plebiscite.

As a result, the Commission proposed to the Governments that the accession of the state be decided by a free and impartial plebiscite and that the Secretary-General nominate, in agreement with the Commission, a Plebiscite Administrator.

Both Governments accepted the proposals, with clarifications and understandings, and ordered a cease-fire as from January 1, 1949. On January 5 the Commission adopted a formal resolution embodying the proposals. It then appointed observers from various nations to report on the observance of the cease-fire agreement. On July 27

agreement on a cease-fire line was reached, and a few days later was ratified by both India and Pakistan.

Meanwhile, in March, Fleet Admiral Chester W. Nimitz, United States Navy, was nominated as Plebiscite Administrator by the Secretary-General. He was to be formally appointed by the Government of Jammu and Kashmir when the details of the plebiscite were settled after the acceptance of a truce agreement.

On April 15 the Commission presented simultaneously to both Governments its proposals for implementation of the truce agreement, emphasizing withdrawal on the entire cease-fire line, including the line in the northern frontier areas. After considering the replies, the Commission on April 28 presented its final terms and asked for unreserved acceptance. The replies, however, did not constitute acceptance. Resorting to another procedure, the Commission invited India and Pakistan to joint meetings at the ministerial level, but abandoned the idea in the face of disagreement on the agenda.

As a final effort, the Commission asked the parties whether they would agree to submit the points at issue to arbitration, but this was not acceptable to India. In the circumstances, the Commission decided to report to the Council.

After considering the Commission's report, the Council on December 17, 1949, requested its President, General A. G. L. McNaughton, of Canada, to hold informal discussions with the parties. However, his proposals were unacceptable to both Governments, and General McNaughton reported in February 1950 that no useful purpose could be served by continued activity on his part.

APPOINTMENT OF A UNITED NATIONS REPRESENTATIVE

On March 14, 1950, the Council called on India and Pakistan to prepare and execute within five months a program of demilitarization based on General McNaughton's proposals. A United Nations Representative (Sir Owen Dixon, of Australia, was later appointed) was to assist in the realization of this program.

On September 15, 1950, Sir Owen reported that no agreement had been reached on demilitarization and on preparations for the holding of a plebiscite. He recommended that the Council press for a reduction in the military strength with the cease-fire line protected as a normal peacetime frontier; he considered the continued maintenance of the armies to be fraught with danger. He asked also to be relieved of his position.

After resuming consideration of this question on February 21, 1951, the Council provided on March 30 that a new Representative (Frank P. Graham, of the United States, was later appointed), after consultation with India and Pakistan, effect demilitarization on the basis of the Commission resolutions of August 13, 1948, and January

5, 1949. If within three months of his arrival on the sub-continent he had not done so or had not obtained the agreement of the parties to a plan for doing so, he should then report to the Council those points of difference regarding the interpretation and execution of the Commission resolutions. Further, the Council called on the parties, in the event of failure to reach full agreement, to accept arbitration on all outstanding points of difference. The arbitrator or panel of arbitrators would be appointed by the President of the International Court of Justice after consultation with the parties.

TWELVE PROPOSALS

OF THE UNITED NATIONS REPRESENTATIVE

Mr. Graham arrived on the sub-continent on June 30, 1951, and personally presented his report to the Council on October 18. The report showed that twelve draft proposals had been submitted to the two Governments. Both Governments had accepted the general principles set forth in the first four proposals—reaffirmation of their determination not to resort to force over Kashmir, agreement to take measures to avoid warlike statements regarding that question, reaffirmation of their will to observe the cease-fire, and reaffirmation of their acceptance of the principle that the question of the accession of the state would be decided through a free and impartial plebiscite under the auspices of the United Nations. Agreement had not been reached, however, on the proposals providing for demilitarization.

In November 1951 the Council instructed Mr. Graham to continue his efforts to obtain agreement on a plan for demilitarization and to report within six weeks.

SECOND REPORT

OF THE UNITED NATIONS REPRESENTATIVE

In a second report on December 18, 1951, Mr. Graham said that the parties had agreed to four more proposals dealing with the process of demilitarization, but agreement had not been reached on the four most basic proposals.

THIRD REPORT

OF THE UNITED NATIONS REPRESENTATIVE

Continuing his efforts to fulfill his mission, on April 22, 1952, Mr. Graham transmitted a third report which dealt with discussions held with representatives of India and Pakistan up to the time of his departure from the sub-continent on March 25. He reported that the chief remaining obstacle was the difference over the number and character of the forces to be left at the end of the period of demili-

tarization on each side of the cease-fire line. Pakistan had accepted, with certain qualifications regarding the character of the forces to be demilitarized, all twelve proposals. India had maintained that, if agreement could be reached on the issues of the number and character of the forces to be left on each side of the cease-fire line, the two remaining differences, concerning the period of demilitarization and the induction into office of the Plebiscite Administrator, could be solved without difficulty.

FOURTH REPORT

OF THE UNITED NATIONS REPRESENTATIVE

On May 29, 1952, Mr. Graham informed the President of the Council that negotiations had been renewed. Four months later he reported that negotiations, first in New York and later, at the ministerial level, in Geneva, had concluded on September 10, with no agreement reached on the most important points.

COUNCIL RESOLUTION OF DECEMBER 23, 1952

Mr. Graham gave the Council his personal appraisal of the situation at a meeting on October 10, in which he explained that the remaining differences were related to the differing conceptions of the two Governments on the status of the state, the nature of the responsibilities of the appropriate authorities on each side of the cease-fire line after demilitarization, and the obligations of the two Governments under the provisions of the Commission resolutions for a plebiscite.

The Council adopted a resolution on December 23, 1952, urging India and Pakistan to negotiate immediately, under the auspices of Mr. Graham, on the specific number of forces to remain on each side of the cease-fire line at the end of the period of demilitarization.

On January 23, 1953, Mr. Graham informed the President of the Security Council that India and Pakistan had agreed that a meeting of representatives of the two Governments at the ministerial level should be held under his auspices beginning February 4, 1953 in Geneva.

FIFTH REPORT

OF THE UNITED NATIONS REPRESENTATIVE

Mr. Graham transmitted his fifth report to the Council on March 27, 1953, stating that, as before, both India and Pakistan were unable to agree on the number and character of the forces to be left on each side of the cease-fire line at the end of the period of demilitarization.

RESUMPTION OF SECURITY COUNCIL CONSIDERATION

On January 16, 1957, the Security Council resumed consideration of the India-Pakistan question. On January 24 the Council adopted a resolution reaffirming its resolution of March 30, 1951, and reminded the Governments and authorities concerned that the final disposition of the state was to be decided through a free and impartial plebiscite under the auspices of the United Nations.

On February 25 the Council adopted a resolution requesting its President to examine with the Governments of India and Pakistan any proposals which, in his opinion, were likely to contribute toward the settlement of the dispute, due regard being given to the previous resolutions of the Council and of the Commission; visit the sub-continent for this purpose; and report to the Council not later than April 15.

REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE SECURITY COUNCIL

Gunnar Jarring, of Sweden, the President of the Security Council for the month of February 1957, visited India and Pakistan between March 14 and April 11 and in that period had a number of discussions with the two Governments. On April 29 he submitted a report. It stated, *inter alia*, that his examination of the existing situation indicated that, despite the deadlock, both parties were still desirous of finding a peaceful solution to the problem and were willing to cooperate with the United Nations in this regard.

CONSIDERATION OF THE JARRING REPORT
BY THE SECURITY COUNCIL

On September 27 the Council met to consider the Jarring report. On December 2, 1957, the Council adopted a resolution which, *inter alia*, requested the United Nations Representative to make further appropriate recommendations to India and Pakistan toward implementation of the Commission resolution and toward a peaceful settlement.

MR. GRAHAM'S 1958 REPORT

On March 28, 1958, the United Nations Representative submitted a report listing five recommendations which he had submitted to the Governments of India and Pakistan on February 15, 1958. He had recommended (1) a renewed declaration by the two Governments appealing to their respective peoples to assist in creating an atmosphere favorable to future negotiations and to refrain from statements and actions which would aggravate the situation; (2) a reaffirmation

by both Governments that they would respect the integrity of the existing cease-fire line; (3) a study, under Mr. Graham's auspices, of how the territory in the state of Jammu and Kashmir—to be evacuated by Pakistan forces under the Commission resolution of August 13, 1948—should be administered, pending a final solution; in this connection consideration was to be given to the possibility of the stationing of a United Nations force on the Pakistan side of the border; (4) an early agreement between the two Governments on the holding of a plebiscite in the contested territory; and (5) a Prime Ministers' conference between India and Pakistan under the auspices of the United Nations Representative.

Pakistan, Mr. Graham stated, had agreed to the recommendations in principle. India had declared itself unable to accept them, since it considered that they were made without regard to the failure to implement certain relevant resolutions of the United Nations, for which it held Pakistan responsible.

FURTHER COMMUNICATIONS

CONCERNING THE INDIA-PAKISTAN QUESTION

In 1959 communications received by the Security Council on this matter included, among others, communications regarding the trial of Sheikh Abdullah, former Premier of the state of Jammu and Kashmir, the construction of the Mangla Dam, and the events in the eastern part of the province of Ladakh.

During 1960 further communications regarding the question were addressed by both countries to the President of the Security Council, referring to such matters as the status of the state of Jammu and Kashmir and the question of the Chinese incursions into Ladakh.

In 1962 in January, Pakistan sent a letter to the Security Council President, asking for an early meeting and saying that "efforts made at the highest level" for direct negotiations with the Government of India toward "a just and amicable settlement" of the dispute, had so far failed; in addition, recent pronouncements by responsible personalities in India concerning Kashmir had emphasized that the situation was "charged with the utmost gravity."

On January 16, India asked that the Council "refuse to entertain" Pakistan's request for a meeting on Kashmir and added that the eve of the general elections in India "is hardly the proper time for direct negotiations between the two Governments or for discussion of the situation in the Security Council." It also characterized as "unfounded" the allegations made by Pakistan to the effect that efforts for direct negotiations had failed and that a threat to the peace had arisen.

Pakistan, on January 29, repeated its request for a Security Council meeting. On February 1 the Council met, but after hearing

the representatives of the two countries, decided to defer further consideration until a later date.

In April and May a series of five meetings was held by the Council, which heard statements by the representatives of India and Pakistan and by Council members.

On June 15 the Council resumed consideration of the Kashmir question; it concluded its debate on June 22. A draft resolution failed to be adopted because of the negative vote of the Soviet Union. The resolution, among other things, would have had the Council urge the Governments to enter into negotiations on the question "at the earliest convenient time," and appeal to them to take "all possible measures to ensure the creation and maintenance of an atmosphere favorable to the promotion of negotiations."

Hyderabad Question

On August 21, 1948, the Government of Hyderabad drew the attention of the Security Council to a grave dispute which had arisen from India's action in threatening Hyderabad with invasion and economic blockade, with the intent of coercing it into renunciation of its independence. India maintained that Hyderabad was not competent to bring this question to the Council, as it was not a state and was not independent.

The Council considered the subject during several meetings and received a number of communications pertaining to the question, some of them dealing with the right of Hyderabad to initiate the proceedings and some with the credentials of the Hyderabad delegation. The Council did not take any action on the matter, and since May 1949 no developments concerning the issue have taken place.

Threats to the Political Independence and Territorial Integrity of China

In September 1949 China submitted to the General Assembly the question of "Threats to the political independence and territorial integrity of China and to the peace of the Far East, resulting from Soviet violations of the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance of August 14, 1945, and from Soviet violations of the Charter of the United Nations."

The USSR, the Byelorussian SSR, Czechoslovakia, Poland, and the Ukrainian SSR announced that they would neither take part in the debate nor be bound by any decisions taken.

The representative of China called on the Assembly to pronounce judgment on the Soviet Union for obstructing the efforts of the Chinese National Government in Manchuria and to recommend that

all member states refrain from giving further military and economic aid to the Chinese communists.

The General Assembly, on December 8, 1949, called on all states to: (1) respect the political independence of China and to be guided by the principles of the United Nations in their relations with China; (2) respect the right of the people of China to choose freely their political institutions and to maintain a government independent of foreign control; (3) respect existing treaties relating to China; and (4) refrain from seeking to acquire spheres of influence or to obtain special rights or privileges within the territory of China. The Assembly also referred the question to the Interim Committee for study in the light of the preceding resolution.

The Assembly at its fifth session again requested the Interim Committee to continue its inquiry on the question and urged all states to comply with its resolution of December 8, 1949.

At its sixth session, the Assembly, on February 1, 1952, adopted another resolution on the question. It stated that the USSR, in its relations with China since the surrender of Japan, had failed to carry out the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance.

Representation of China on United Nations Bodies

On November 18, 1949, the Foreign Minister of the Central People's Government of the People's Republic of China informed the President of the General Assembly and the Secretary-General that his Government repudiated the legal status of the delegation of the Chinese National Government, which, he said, had no right to speak for the people of China in the United Nations. On January 8, 1950, he informed the Security Council that his Government considered that the presence of the existing Chinese delegation in the Council was illegal and that it should be expelled. The USSR then proposed that the Council decide not to recognize the credentials of the representative of the "Kuomintang group" and to exclude him.

On January 13 the Soviet proposal was rejected. The representative of the USSR then declared that his delegation would not participate in the Council's work until the "Kuomintang representative" had been removed, nor would the Soviet Government recognize as legal any decision adopted with his participation. Accordingly, the representative of the USSR left the Council Chamber. (He did not return until August 1, 1950, and in the interim the representatives of the USSR and certain other states withdrew from other United Nations organs of which China was a member.)

On August 1, 1950, at a meeting of the Council, the President (the representative of the USSR) ruled that the representative of the "Kuomintang group" did not represent China and therefore could not take part in the Council's meetings. However, the Council over-

ruled the ruling of the President and two days later rejected a Soviet proposal to include in the agenda an item entitled "Recognition of the representative of the Central People's Government of the People's Republic of China as the representative of China."

Also in August 1950, the Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Central People's Government of the People's Republic of China requested that the necessary arrangements be made for the delegation of the People's Republic of China to attend the fifth session of the General Assembly. The Assembly established a special committee which failed to agree on any recommendations in the matter, and accordingly no decision was taken at the fifth session.

The question of the representation of China has been before the United Nations General Assembly at each session since the fifth. During the Assembly sessions 1956-59, India made repeated proposals for placing the question on the agenda. In 1960 a similar proposal was made by the USSR. In each instance the Assembly decided to reject the request. The question was also raised in the Credentials Committee.

In 1961 the question was placed on the agenda. After discussing the item, the Assembly decided that any proposal to change the representation of China was an important question under Article 18 of the Charter, thus requiring a two-thirds majority; the Assembly rejected the proposal that China be represented by the Government of the People's Republic.

At the General Assembly's seventeenth session, the Soviet Union proposed that the question of which government should represent China be included in the agenda. On October 30, 1962, the Assembly rejected a Soviet proposal which would have had the Assembly "remove the Chiang Kai-shek representatives from all United Nations organs" and "invite representatives of the Government of the People's Republic of China to occupy China's place in the United Nations and all its organs."

The question of the representation of China has also been raised on several other occasions since the fifth session of the General Assembly in other United Nations organs and in the specialized agencies.

Complaint of Armed Invasion of Taiwan (Formosa)

The Foreign Minister of the Central People's Government of the People's Republic of China cabled the Security Council on August 24, 1950, that the United States was committing aggression against Chinese territory by sending armed forces to Taiwan (Formosa). This, he contended, constituted aggression, since Taiwan was an integral part of China, as stipulated in the Cairo Declaration of 1943 and the Potsdam communiqué of 1945.

The United States replied on August 25 that the action was intended to keep the peace and to protect the security of United Nations troops in Korea and that the United States would welcome United Nations consideration of the case.

On August 29, 1950, the Security Council voted to include the item in its agenda and rejected a Soviet proposal to invite a representative of the People's Republic of China.

The Soviet Union proposed on September 2 that the Council condemn the action of the United States and propose that it immediately withdraw all its forces.

On September 29 the Council decided to defer consideration until later and to invite a representative of the People's Republic of China to attend the discussion of its declaration regarding invasion of Taiwan.

On November 27, 1950, the Council decided to consider together the items entitled "Complaint of armed invasion of Taiwan (Formosa)" and "Complaint of aggression against the Republic of Korea" (*see page 99*).

Complaint by the USSR

Regarding Aggression against China by the United States

The Soviet Union on September 20, 1950, proposed that the question of United States aggression against China be included in the agenda of the General Assembly's fifth session.

The item was discussed at the fifth session but no action was taken.

Question of Formosa

On September 20, 1950, the United States requested that the question of Formosa be included in the agenda of the General Assembly. An explanatory note recalled the Cairo Declaration of 1943, the Potsdam Proclamation of 1945, and the Japanese surrender terms by which Japanese forces on Formosa surrendered to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. The note added that the United States had no territorial ambitions in Formosa and sought no special position or privilege; it suggested that the General Assembly study the general situation with respect to Formosa with a view to formulating appropriate recommendations.

The Assembly referred the question of Formosa to its First Committee, which decided to adjourn the discussion *sine die*.

Complaint of Bombing by United States

Military Aircraft of the Territory of China

On August 28, 1950, the Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Central People's Government of the People's Republic of China charged that

on August 27 military aircraft of the United States forces had flown over Chinese territory and had killed a number of persons. He asked the Security Council to condemn the United States aggression forces and to take immediate measures to bring about the withdrawal of all United States forces from Korea.

The question was discussed by the Council but, owing to the lack of unanimity of the permanent members, no action was taken.

Further Charges

of United States Violations of Chinese Territory

On October 5, 1950, the USSR proposed the inclusion in the agenda of the fifth session of the General Assembly of an item based on the requests contained in the communications dated September 24 and 27, 1950, from the People's Republic of China. The item was entitled "Complaint by the USSR regarding the violation of Chinese air space by the air force of the United States and the machine gunning and bombing of Chinese territory by that air force, and against the bombardment and illegal inspection of a merchant ship of the People's Republic of China by a military vessel of the United States."

The Assembly considered the item at its fifth session but no action was taken.

Geneva Protocol for the

Prohibition of the Use of Bacterial Weapons

In June 1952, at the request of the Soviet Union, the Security Council considered the question of an appeal to states to accede to the 1925 Geneva Protocol for the Prohibition of the Use of Bacterial Weapons, along with a Soviet draft resolution asking for the Council to make such an appeal. Only six states among those which had acceded to the Protocol had not yet ratified it, the Soviet Union pointed out. These were Brazil, El Salvador, Japan, Nicaragua, the United States, and Uruguay.

The United States countered that the Protocol had been withdrawn from the United States Senate in 1947, together with other treaties which had become obsolete. Citing the reservations made to the Protocol by the Soviet Union, the United States said that, by charging the United Nations Command in Korea with the use of bacterial weapons, the Soviet Union had set the stage for using the weapons itself should it declare that states resisting aggression in Korea were its enemies. The United States declared that it had never used germ warfare in the Second World War or at any other time. It had not used and was not using germ warfare of any kind in Korea. The United States proposed the absolute elimination of weapons of

mass destruction through the establishment of an effective system which would render their use impossible, and asked that the Soviet draft resolution be referred to the Disarmament Commission.

On June 26 only the Soviet Union voted in support of the Soviet draft resolution, while the other ten members abstained. The proposal thus was not adopted.

Request for Investigation of Alleged Bacterial Warfare

On June 25, 1952, the Security Council decided to include in its agenda the item "Question of a request for investigation of alleged bacterial warfare," which had been proposed by the United States. A Soviet proposal to invite representatives of the People's Republic of China and the Democratic People's Republic of Korea was rejected by the Council.

The United States submitted a draft resolution which noted the concerted dissemination by certain governments and authorities of grave accusations alleging the use of bacterial warfare by United Nations forces in Korea and recalled that the United Nations Command had requested an impartial investigation by the International Committee of the Red Cross. The proposal then called upon all governments and authorities concerned to accord full cooperation to the Committee.

Two draft resolutions submitted by the United States failed of adoption because of negative votes by the Soviet Union.

At the request of the United States, the General Assembly, at its seventh session, considered the "Question of impartial investigation of charges of use by United Nations forces of bacteriological warfare." It was stated in an explanatory memorandum that since February 1952 such charges had been reiterated by Poland and the Soviet Union, in spite of authoritative denials and offers of impartial investigation.

On April 23, 1953, the Assembly adopted a revised joint draft resolution to establish—after the President of the Assembly had received an indication from all governments and authorities concerned of their acceptance of the proposed investigation—a commission to carry out an investigation of the charges.

On July 28 the President of the Assembly notified members that the proposal to establish the commission of investigation had been accepted by Japan, the Republic of Korea, and the United States and that no other replies had been received.

After the General Assembly had decided to include the item in the agenda of its eighth session, the United States, on October 26, 1953, transmitted to the Secretary-General sworn statements by officers of the United States armed forces repudiating confessions regarding bacterial warfare which they had made while prisoners of

war and charging that the confessions had been extorted from them by their captors.

The Soviet Union submitted a draft resolution by which the Assembly would call upon all states which had not acceded to or ratified the Geneva Protocol of June 17, 1925, to accede to, or ratify, that Protocol.

The Assembly, however, adopted a proposal to refer the Soviet draft resolution to the Disarmament Commission, along with the records of the discussion of the item.

Complaint by the United States

Regarding an Attack on its Aircraft

On September 8, 1954, the United States informed the Security Council that, on September 4, a United States Navy aircraft, on a peaceful mission over international waters, had been attacked without warning and destroyed by two MIG-type aircraft with Soviet markings.

The question was discussed on September 10, but no action was taken.

Complaint of Violation

of the Freedom of Navigation in the Area of the China Seas

On September 30, 1954, the Soviet Union requested that the General Assembly consider the item "Complaint of violation of the freedom of navigation in the area of the China seas."

On December 17, 1954, the Assembly adopted a resolution by which it transmitted to the International Law Commission the relevant records and documents of the discussion on this item, and recalled that it had requested the Commission to complete its final report concerning the regime of the high seas, the regime of territorial waters, and related problems.

Complaint of Acts of Aggression

against the People's Republic of China and Responsibility of the United States Navy for those Acts

On October 15, 1954, the Soviet Union asked the General Assembly to consider at its ninth session the item "Complaint of acts of aggression against the People's Republic of China and responsibility of the United States Navy for those acts."

A draft resolution submitted by the Soviet Union was not adopted.

Question Concerning Certain Islands in the Coastal Area of China

On January 28, 1955, New Zealand requested the Security Council to consider the question of armed hostilities between the People's Republic of China and the Republic of China in the area of certain islands off the coast of the mainland of China.

Two days later, the Soviet Union requested the Security Council to consider the question of acts of aggression by the United States against the People's Republic of China in the area of Taiwan (Formosa) and other islands of China.

The Security Council on January 31 included both items in its agenda and decided to conclude its consideration of the New Zealand item before taking up the Soviet item.

A proposal that the Council invite the People's Republic of China to participate in the discussion of the item was adopted.

On February 3 the Minister for Foreign Affairs of the People's Republic of China, in reply to the invitation to participate, charged that aggression by the United States against the Chinese territory of Taiwan was the source of tension in the Far East, and supported the Soviet proposals for putting an end to United States aggression. Since the liberation of its own territory was a sovereign right of the Chinese people and entirely an internal affair, it was a violation of the Charter for the Council to consider the New Zealand item, he declared. He stated also that the People's Republic of China would agree to participate in the Council's deliberations only when its representative attended in the name of China.

On February 14 a proposal by the representative of the Soviet Union that the Council proceed to discuss the item submitted by his delegation was rejected, and the Council adjourned for the time being its consideration of the New Zealand item.

Complaint by Burma

Regarding Aggression against It by the Republic of China

At the request of Burma, the General Assembly on March 31, 1953, included in the agenda the item "Complaint by the Union of Burma regarding aggression against it by the Government of the Republic of China."

The situation as described by Burma was that in 1950 Kuomintang troops had crossed the border into Burma. They had refused to submit to disarmament and internment, and engagements had taken place between them and the Burmese army. By 1953 the number of Kuomintang troops had grown to about 12,000.

The representative of China replied that the so-called aggression against Burma was not an idea of the Chinese Government and that the army led by General Li Mi was no longer part of the regular forces of the Republic of China.

On April 23, 1953, the General Assembly adopted a resolution by which, *inter alia*, it deplored the presence of foreign troops in Burma and condemned their hostile acts against that country, declared that these foreign forces must be disarmed and either agree to internment or leave Burma forthwith.

At its eighth session the General Assembly, having considered anew the complaint of Burma, adopted on December 4, 1953, a resolution urging that efforts be continued for the evacuation or internment of the foreign forces in Burma and the surrender of all arms.

On August 20, 1954, Burma requested that its complaint be included in the agenda of the ninth session of the General Assembly. On October 29 the Assembly, with China not participating in the vote, adopted a resolution which: (1) noted with satisfaction that nearly 7,000 persons had been evacuated from Burma; (2) expressed its appreciation of the efforts of the United States and Thailand in achieving the evacuation; (3) deplored the fact that considerable foreign forces with a significant quantity of arms still remained in Burma and had failed to respond to the declarations of the General Assembly that they either leave Burma or submit to internment; (4) called once more on those forces to submit to disarming and internment; (5) assured Burma of its continuing sympathy with and support of the efforts of that Government to bring about a complete solution of the serious problem; (6) urged all states to take all necessary steps to prevent the furnishing of any assistance which might enable foreign forces to remain in Burma or to continue their hostile acts against that country; and (7) invited the Government of Burma to report on the situation to the Assembly as appropriate.

Request of Thailand for the Dispatch of Observers by the Peace Observation Commission

On May 29, 1954, Thailand brought to the attention of the Security Council the situation in Indo-China. The representative of Thailand stated that a very real danger existed that fighting in neighboring territories might spread to Thailand and to other countries in the area. The Viet Minh forces which still remained in Laos and Cambodia were well organized; there was evidence that they had received support from outside Indo-China and that these forces intended to overthrow the legal Governments of Cambodia and Laos. He added that the propaganda of the Viet Minh and of the foreign government with which it was associated had spread serious and false charges against Thailand, and within Thailand itself, alien elements obedient to the political philosophy of the Viet Minh had been disquietingly active. A Thai draft resolution requesting the aid of the Peace Observation Commission failed of adoption because of the negative vote of the USSR.

By a letter dated July 7, addressed to the Secretary-General, the Thai Government proposed that an item entitled "Request of Thailand for observation under the Peace Observation Commission" be placed on the agenda of the eighth session of the General Assembly, which, technically, was still in session and could therefore be reconvened. On August 20, 1954, however, the Government of Thailand informed the Secretary-General that it would not press for a resumption of the eighth session of the Assembly.

Relations Between Cambodia and Thailand

During November and December 1958 Cambodia and Thailand informed the Secretary-General that certain difficulties had arisen along their common border. On December 22 the Secretary-General announced that he had designated, in response to an invitation from the two Governments, Ambassador Johan Beck-Friis of Sweden as his special representative to assist the two countries in finding a solution to their problem.

As a result, the two Governments transmitted to the Secretary-General a communiqué, simultaneously issued in Bangkok and Phnom-Penh on February 6, 1959, announcing the re-establishment of diplomatic relations between the two countries. Both Cambodia and Thailand expressed gratitude and appreciation for the assistance given by the Secretary-General and his special representative.

On October 19, 1962, the Secretary-General informed the Security Council that the Governments of Cambodia and Thailand had had an exchange of communications with him in which "accusations of aggression, incursion and piracy were made by one party and denied by the other." The Secretary-General, at the request of the two Governments, appointed Nils G. Gussing, a Swedish national, as his personal representative, to inquire into the difficulties that had arisen.

On December 18 the Secretary-General informed the President of the Security Council that, "although serious problems remain to be solved, the activities of the United Nations representative have coincided with a lessening of tension between the two countries." The Secretary-General himself had ascertained, through discussions with the permanent representatives of Cambodia and Thailand, that the presence of the special representative in the area for a period of one year, beginning January 1, 1963, would be desirable.

Question of Laos

In the introduction to his annual report to the General Assembly in 1959, the Secretary-General stated that during the course of the year "difficulties have developed at the northeastern border of Laos," and he called attention to communications received on the matter.

On September 4, 1959, the Foreign Minister of Laos asked for assistance by the United Nations, and in particular the dispatch of an emergency force, to halt what he said was an aggression along the northeastern frontier of Laos by elements from North Viet-Nam. On September 5 the Secretary-General asked the President of the Security Council to convene the Council urgently to consider the Laotian request.

Despite objections by the Soviet Union, the Council considered the item and adopted a resolution, after having decided, over the objections of the Soviet Union, that the item was of a procedural nature and therefore did not require unanimity of the five permanent members. The resolution asked that a subcommittee consisting of Argentina, Italy, Japan, and Tunisia examine the statements made concerning Laos, conduct inquiries on the matter, and report to the Council. The Soviet representative declared that the resolution had been adopted in violation of the Charter and the rules of procedure, and therefore he regarded it as illegal and not binding upon anyone.

The subcommittee visited Laos between September 15 and October 13, 1959, at the invitation of the Laotian Government. The subcommittee's report stated that the military actions in Laos have been "of a guerrilla character," but, as it appeared from statements of the Laotian authorities and of some witnesses, certain of the hostile operations "must have had a centralized coordination."

In the meantime the Secretary-General, continuing his consultations with the Government of Laos, accepted on November 8 an invitation from the Laotian Government to visit the country in order to provide himself with independent and full knowledge of the problem.

On January 1, 1961, Laos notified the United Nations that Soviet planes had parachuted war material to pro-communist rebel troops in Laos. The next day, in another message, Laos stated that "foreign forces" of the Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam had attacked and occupied "several important points" in northern Laos.

The Question of Tibet

The question of Tibet was discussed at the fourteenth session of the General Assembly upon the request of the Federation of Malaya and Ireland, which said there was *prima facie* evidence of an attempt by the authorities of the People's Republic of China to destroy the traditional way of life of the Tibetan people.

The Soviet Union and certain other countries considered the accusation baseless. They also held that, since Tibet was an integral part of China, consideration of the case constituted a violation of Article 2, paragraph 7, of the Charter. Several members, although expressing concern at developments in Tibet, also believed that

Article 2, paragraph 7, of the Charter prevented the Assembly from taking any action on the question.

Nevertheless, on October 21, 1959, the Assembly adopted a resolution affirming its belief that respect for the principles of the United Nations Charter and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was essential for the evolution of a peaceful world order based on the rule of law. It also called for respect for the fundamental human rights of the Tibetan people and for their distinctive cultural and religious life.

The question appeared again on the agenda of the fifteenth session of the Assembly, at the request of the Federation of Malaya and Thailand, but the item was not considered.

At the sixteenth session the General Assembly, in a resolution adopted on December 20, 1961, reaffirmed its conviction regarding respect of the Charter and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and renewed its call for the cessation of practices which deprived the Tibetan people of their fundamental human rights and freedoms, including their right to self-determination.

Questions Concerning Goa, Damao, and Diu

In a series of letters addressed to the President of the Security Council between December 8 and 16, 1961, Portugal stated that India had started a military build-up on the frontiers of Goa, Damao, and Diu, and had violated the Portuguese frontier and air space in an attitude of clear provocation. Portugal was therefore drawing the situation to the attention of the Security Council so that it could take necessary action.

In letters of December 12 and 13 to the Council's President, India stated that, in view of the recent attacks on Indian villages and citizens, it had been obliged to move units of its armed forces to the vicinity of Goa.

On December 14 the Acting Secretary-General addressed identical cables to the Prime Ministers of India and Portugal in which he respectfully and urgently appealed to them and their Governments to ensure that the serious situation which had developed did not deteriorate to the extent that it might constitute a threat to peace and security. He also urged immediate negotiations.

Indian Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru, in a reply dated December 16, said that "we have consistently abided by the provisions of the United Nations Charter" and that "the only solution . . . is for Portugal to leave its colonies in India and allow the people to join their countrymen in freedom and democracy." Mr. Nehru added that the Indian Government "cannot tolerate this state of affairs indefinitely."

Portuguese Prime Minister Antonio de Oliveira Salazar said that

Portugal would, except in case of armed aggression, do nothing which might constitute a threat to peace and security.

On December 18 Portugal declared in a letter to the Council's President that India had launched a full-scale armed attack on Goa, Damao, and Diu, resulting in much damage and many casualties. Portugal was thus obliged to ask the Council to convene immediately in order to stop the aggression of India, ordering an immediate cease-fire, and the withdrawal forthwith of all Indian troops from the Portuguese territories.

On the same day, the Security Council decided, over the opposition of Ceylon and the Soviet Union, to place the question on its agenda.

On December 19, the Council failed to adopt either of two draft resolutions on the Portuguese complaint.

The first draft resolution was a proposal to reject the Portuguese complaint and to call upon Portugal to terminate hostile action and to cooperate with India in the liquidation of her colonial possessions. Also, the Council would have expressed the view that the enclaves claimed by Portugal in India constitute a threat to international peace and security.

In the second draft resolution, the Council would have deplored the use of force by India and would have called for an immediate cessation of hostilities; it would have called on India to withdraw its forces immediately to positions held prior to December 17 and would have urged the parties to work out a permanent solution of their differences.

Questions Relating to Africa

Treatment of People of Indian

and Indo-Pakistan Origin in the Union of South Africa

At the request of India, the General Assembly considered the question of the treatment of people of Indian origin in the Union of South Africa at the second part of the first session in 1946. India had complained that the Union Government, in violation of treaty obligations and of the Charter, had enacted certain discriminatory legislation against Indians.

South Africa proposed that the International Court of Justice be asked for an advisory opinion on whether the matter before the Assembly was not essentially within South Africa's domestic jurisdiction. Rejecting this proposal, the Assembly on December 8, 1946, expressed the opinion that the treatment of Indians in the Union should be in conformity with the international obligations under the agreements concluded between the two Governments and the relevant provisions

of the Charter. It asked the two Governments to report to the next session.

The reports by India and South Africa to the Assembly's second session showed that efforts to arrange discussions had failed. Two proposals were put before the Assembly, but neither received the necessary two-thirds majority.

At the request of India again, the Assembly, at its third session, took up the question and on May 14, 1949, decided to invite India, Pakistan, and South Africa to hold a round table discussion, taking into consideration the purposes and principles of the Charter and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

At preliminary talks in Cape Town in February 1950, agreement was reached on an agenda for a round table conference to explore ways and means of settling the question, but India declined to go ahead with the conference on the ground that the Union Government had resorted to new discriminatory legislation. South Africa contended that this was a matter of domestic jurisdiction.

At its fifth session, the Assembly, on December 2, 1950, recommended that the three Governments proceed to hold a round table conference on the basis of their agreed agenda, "bearing in mind the provisions of the Charter . . . and of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights." The resolution stated that a policy of racial segregation (*apartheid*) was necessarily based on doctrines of racial discrimination. In the event of failure to hold the conference before April 1, 1951, or to reach agreement within a reasonable time, a commission of three members was to be established to assist the parties in carrying through appropriate negotiations. The Assembly called on the three Governments, pending the conclusion of the negotiations, to refrain from taking any steps which would prejudice success, particularly implementation or enforcement of the provisions of the Group Areas Act, which the South African Parliament enacted in 1950.

In March 1951, in separate communications to the Secretary-General, South Africa and India explained their positions. The Union was unable to accept the Assembly's resolution as the basis for a round table conference on the ground that the terms of the resolution constituted intervention in a matter essentially within the Union's domestic jurisdiction. India, on the other hand, considered that the resolution was best designed to secure discussion of the subject in an atmosphere free from prejudice.

At its sixth session in 1951, the Assembly provided for the establishment of a special commission to assist India, Pakistan, and the Union in carrying through negotiations. Considering that a policy of racial segregation was based on doctrines of racial discrimination, it called on the Union Government to suspend its implementation or enforcement of the provisions of the Group Areas Act, pending the

conclusion of the proposed negotiations. The Union continued to enforce the Act.

At the seventh session the Assembly, on December 5, 1952, established a United Nations Good Offices Commission—with Cuba, Syria, and Yugoslavia appointed members—to arrange and assist in negotiations. Pending the conclusion of those negotiations, it called on the Union to suspend the implementation or enforcement of the provisions of the Group Areas Act.

The Good Offices Commission reported to the Assembly at its eighth session on September 14, 1953, that the Government of the Union, having considered the Assembly's resolution of the previous year unconstitutional, had refused to recognize the Commission. The Assembly decided to continue the Good Offices Commission.

The Good Offices Commission reported to the Assembly at its ninth session in 1954 that it had been unable to discover any new procedure whereby it could arrange negotiations between the parties, nor could it submit any proposal likely to lead to a peaceful settlement of the problem. The Assembly suggested that the Governments of India, Pakistan, and the Union seek a solution by direct negotiations. It further decided that if within six months the parties had not reached an agreement on these suggestions, the Secretary-General should designate a person to assist them.

In June 1955, since attempts by the three Governments to initiate new direct negotiations had been unsuccessful, the Secretary-General designated Ambassador Luis de Faro, Jr., of Brazil, to discharge the functions called for in the General Assembly resolution. India and Pakistan stated that they would extend full cooperation, but the Union Government informed the Secretary-General that it was obliged, regretfully, to decline to collaborate with the Ambassador.

At the tenth session in 1955, the Government of the Union of South Africa recalled its delegation from the General Assembly. On December 14, the General Assembly adopted a resolution urging the parties concerned to pursue negotiations with a view to bringing about a settlement of the question.

The Assembly during its eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth sessions appealed again to the Union to cooperate and urged the parties to settle the problem through negotiation. The Union Government, protesting inclusion of the item in the Assembly agenda, continued to withhold its representation.

At its fourteenth session the Assembly, dealing with the question upon separate requests by India and Pakistan, adopted a resolution which expressed regret that the Union had not replied to the communications from India and Pakistan, which were ready to enter into negotiations with the Union. It appealed again to the Union to enter into negotiations with the two countries and invited member states to use their good offices to bring about the envisaged negotiations.

An almost identical resolution was adopted on April 13, 1961, at the fifteenth session of the General Assembly.

At the sixteenth session a similar resolution to those of the two preceding years was adopted on November 28, 1961. Under this resolution the Assembly noted that India and Pakistan had reiterated their readiness to negotiate with the Union; noted, with regret, that the Union Government had not only ignored the Assembly resolutions but had not replied to the communications of India and Pakistan; called on the Union Government to enter into negotiations with India and Pakistan; invited member states to use their good offices to bring about these negotiations; and asked for progress reports from the parties concerned.

At the seventeenth session of the Assembly the question of the treatment of the people of Indian origin in the Union was combined, for the first time, with the question of race conflict in South Africa resulting from *apartheid*. (See page 127.)

Question of Race Conflict in South Africa Resulting from *Apartheid*

The question of race conflict in South Africa resulting from the policy of *apartheid* of the Government of the Union of South Africa, was dealt with for the first time in 1952, at the seventh session of the Assembly.

The Assembly's decisions of December 5, 1952 on the issue were embodied in two resolutions. The first established a three-man commission to study the racial situation in the Union and invited the Union to extend its full cooperation. The commission was asked to report its conclusions to the eighth session. The Assembly subsequently designated Hernán Santa Cruz, Henri Laugier, and Dantes Bellegarde as members of the commission.

The second resolution called on all member states to bring their policies into conformity with their obligations under the Charter to promote the observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms.

South Africa made it clear that it regarded these resolutions as contrary to Article 2, paragraph 7, of the Charter, which precludes intervention in the domestic affairs of member states. Consequently, it did not recognize the Assembly commission.

The first report submitted by the commission to the eighth session of the Assembly in 1953, stated that there could be no doubt that the situation in the Union was likely to impair the general welfare or friendly relations among nations. The doctrine of racial superiority on which the policy of *apartheid* was based was scientifically false, dangerous to internal peace and international relations, and contrary to "the dignity and worth of the human person."

On December 8, a resolution was adopted by the Assembly by

which the commission was requested to continue its study of the development of the racial situation in South Africa and to suggest measures which would help to alleviate the situation and promote a peaceful settlement and the Union Government was invited to extend its full cooperation to the commission.

The report of the commission to the ninth session of the General Assembly in 1954 analyzed the new laws and regulations providing for differential treatment of various sections of the population in the Union. The report detailed a number of measures which might help to alleviate the situation. On December 14, the Assembly invited the Government of the Union to reconsider its position in the light of the principles of the Charter.

In the third report of the commission, covering the period from August 1954 to July 1955, it was stated that the general aims of the policy of *apartheid* had not changed. However, in the implementation of the *apartheid* policy, a certain flexibility and gradualism already noted in the first report had become more marked, and the commission was of the view that the process of *apartheid* had slowed down and become cautious. The commission considered that a solution should be sought in frequent interracial, round table discussions, and other such contacts.

On December 6, 1955, the General Assembly adopted a resolution which expressed its concern at the fact that the Government of the Union continued to give effect to the policies of *apartheid*. The term of the commission, however, was not extended.

In January 1957, the Assembly adopted a resolution deploring the fact that the Union Government had not yet observed its obligations under the Charter and had pressed forward with discriminatory measures.

The Assembly on November 20, 1957, adopted a resolution appealing to the Union Government to revise its policy in the light of the principles and purposes of the Charter and of world opinion.

On November 26, 1958, the Assembly adopted a resolution calling upon all members to bring their policies into conformity with the Charter and expressing regret and concern that the Union Government had not yet responded to its appeals.

A resolution adopted at the fourteenth session of the General Assembly in 1959 expressed its opposition to the continuance or preservation of racial discrimination in any part of the world; called upon member states to bring their policies into conformity with the Charter; and expressed concern and regret at the Union's refusal to reconsider its policies.

The question was discussed again during the fifteenth session of the General Assembly in 1960 and a resolution adopted on April 13, 1961 deploring the "continued and total disregard" by the Union of the repeated requests of the United Nations and world opinion

that it reconsider its racial policies. The Assembly also asked all states to consider such separate and collective action as was open to them to bring about the abandonment of these policies and reminded the Union of Article 2, paragraph 2, of the Charter, that all members shall fulfill the obligations of the Charter.

The Union's failure to comply with the previous General Assembly's resolutions, as well as with the 1960 resolution of the Security Council, was deplored in a resolution adopted at the sixteenth session of the Assembly on November 28, 1961. The resolution, *inter alia*, condemned the policy of racial superiority, deprecated the discriminatory laws and measures of the Union and "their ruthless enforcement accompanied by violence and bloodshed," reminded the Union again of Article 2, paragraph 2, and called once again upon the Union to change its policies.

In 1960 a similar question was brought before the Security Council by twenty-nine African and Asian members of the United Nations. The Council was requested to "consider the situation arising out of the large-scale killings of unarmed and peaceful demonstrators against racial discrimination and segregation in the Union of South Africa." The Council, despite the protests of the Union, discussed the matter and, on April 1, adopted a resolution which stated that if the situation in South Africa continued, it might endanger international peace and security, and called upon the Union to abandon the policy of *apartheid* and racial discrimination. The Council also requested the Secretary-General, in consultation with the Union, to take adequate measures to uphold the purposes and principles of the Charter.

Subsequently, the Secretary-General informed the Security Council of an invitation by the Union for him to visit South Africa. The visit took place between January 6 and 12, 1961. In his discussions with the Union's Prime Minister no mutually acceptable arrangement was found, but the Secretary-General informed the Council that, in his view, this lack of agreement was not conclusive, and he looked forward to the continuation of consultations. The Union, having found the talks useful and constructive, decided to invite him again at an appropriate time, or times, in order to continue the present contact.

The Policies of *Apartheid* of the Government of the Republic of South Africa

At the seventeenth session of the General Assembly in 1962 forty-eight delegations submitted this item, which combines two subjects that have been before the Assembly for some years—race conflict, since 1952, and the treatment of the people of Indian origin in South Africa, since 1946.

The sponsors stated that the policies and actions of the South

African Government regarding *apartheid* and racial discrimination "continue with increasing ruthlessness and disregard of world public opinion and of the successive resolutions adopted by the United Nations." They believed that it was the Assembly's responsibility to deal with these questions and the question of race conflict, and to take "appropriate decisions with a view to securing the observance by the Republic of South Africa of human rights and fundamental freedoms in accordance with the provisions of the Charter."

The Assembly, after its Special Political Committee had debated the question for a considerable time, adopted, on November 6, 1962, by a roll-call vote of 67 to 16, with 23 abstentions, a resolution sponsored by thirty-three Asian and African delegations. The resolution deplored the failure of the South African Government to comply with the repeated requests and demands of the Assembly and of the Security Council to abandon its racial policies; strongly deprecated "the continued and total disregard" of South Africa of its Charter obligations; and reaffirmed that the continuance of South Africa's racial policies seriously endanger international peace and security.

In addition, the resolution requested member states, separately or collectively, in conformity with the Charter, to take the following measures: to break off diplomatic relations with the Government of South Africa; to close all ports to all vessels flying the South African flag; to enact legislation prohibiting the ships of each state from entering South African ports; to boycott all South African goods and to refrain from exporting goods, including all arms and ammunition, to South Africa; and to refuse landing and passage facilities to all aircraft belonging to the Government and companies registered under the laws of South Africa.

The resolution also established a special committee of representatives of member states to keep the racial policies of South Africa under review and to report either to the Assembly or to the Security Council, or both, as appropriate from time to time.

Finally, the resolution requested the Security Council to take appropriate measures, including sanctions, to secure South Africa's compliance with the resolutions of the Assembly and of the Council, and, if necessary, to consider action under Article 6 of the Charter, which provides that a member which has persistently violated the principles of the Charter may be expelled by the Assembly on the recommendation of the Council.

The Egyptian Question

Contending that Britain was maintaining troops in Egyptian territory against the will of the people, Egypt requested the Security Council, on July 8, 1947, to direct the total and immediate evacuation of such troops and the termination of the administrative regime in the Sudan.

The United Kingdom replied that the troops were being maintained in accordance with the twenty-year treaty of 1936, that Egypt had rejected a new treaty on the Sudan in 1946, and that therefore the earlier treaty remained effective.

Between August 5 and September 10, 1947, the Security Council considered the complaint. No action was taken.

The Former Italian Colonies

At the Paris Peace Conference in 1947, Italy renounced all claims to its former colonies (Libya, Eritrea, and Italian Somaliland), and under article 23 of the Italian Peace Treaty their final disposition was to be determined by France, the United Kingdom, the United States, and the USSR within one year of the conclusion of the treaty, that is, by September 15, 1948.

When the four powers failed to reach agreement, the issue was referred to the General Assembly, which took it up at the second part of its third session in April 1949 but postponed a decision until the fourth session. At that session on November 21, 1949, the Assembly adopted a resolution dealing with all three territories.

Libya, comprising Cyrenaica, Tripolitania, and the Fezzan, the Assembly decided, should become an independent and sovereign state not later than January 1, 1952, and should then be admitted to the United Nations. A United Nations Commissioner—Adrian Pelt, an assistant Secretary-General of the United Nations—was appointed to assist the Libyans in drawing up a constitution and establishing an independent government.

The Assembly also decided that Somaliland should become a sovereign state ten years from the date of Assembly approval of a trusteeship agreement for the territory, with Italy as the administering authority in the interim period, assisted by an Advisory Council.

With regard to Eritrea, the Assembly stated that a commission of investigation should be dispatched to the territory, *inter alia*, to ascertain more fully the wishes of the people and the best means of promoting their welfare. It was instructed to report to the Assembly not later than June 15, 1950.

LIBYA

On November 17, 1950, the General Assembly adopted a resolution which called on the authorities concerned to ensure, among other things, the early realization of the unity of Libya and the transfer of power to an independent Libyan Government by January 1, 1952; recommended that a National Assembly, to be convened before January 1, 1951, establish a provisional government and that the United Nations Commissioner, aided by a Council of Ten, draw up a program

for the transfer of power in cooperation with the administering powers; and urged the Economic and Social Council, the specialized agencies, and the Secretary-General to extend to Libya such technical and financial assistance as it might request.

Later, on December 15, the Assembly adopted resolutions relating to the economic and financial provisions to be applied under the Italian peace treaty; one resolution provided for the establishment of a United Nations Tribunal in Libya.

In the meantime, on December 2, 1950, the Libyan National Assembly declared that Libya should be a federal state, with the Emir of Cyrenaica as King. On March 29, 1951, the National Assembly established a "provisional federal government" for Libya.

The transfer of powers took place on October 2, 1951, and five days later the constitution establishing a United Kingdom of Libya was approved by the National Assembly.

On December 24, 1951, Libya was proclaimed an independent and sovereign state by King Idris I, and the administering powers transferred all authority to the Libyan Government. Libya immediately applied for membership in the United Nations but was not admitted until December 14, 1955.

At its tenth session the Assembly also decided, on December 6, 1955, to terminate the United Nations Tribunal in Libya, upon the establishment of an Italian-Libyan Mixed Arbitration Commission.

Also in 1955, and in 1958 and 1960, the Assembly adopted resolutions on the question of assistance to Libya; all of these recognized the special responsibility assumed by the United Nations for the future of that country. In 1962, the Secretary-General received a communication from the Prime Minister of Libya, stating that "our economic prospects have been improved by the fortunate discovery of petroleum," and the General Assembly "may consider that the question of assistance to Libya now no longer requires a special agenda item and may be dealt with . . . under broader items dealing with problems of economic and social development in their global context."

The Assembly therefore adopted, on December 18, 1962, at its seventeenth session, a resolution requesting the United Nations and the aid agencies concerned to "deal with the needs of the United Kingdom of Libya in the general framework of assistance to newly-independent countries."

ITALIAN SOMALILAND (*see page 134*)

ERITREA

At its fifth session the General Assembly adopted on December 2, 1950, a resolution which included a plan, suggested by the United Nations Commission, whereby Eritrea was to constitute an autonomous unit federated with Ethiopia under the sovereignty of the Ethiopian

Crown. An Eritrean Government was to be organized and a constitution prepared with the assistance of a United Nations Commissioner—Eduardo Anze Matienzo, of Bolivia—and experts.

In March 1952 a Representative Assembly was elected and officially opened on April 28. On May 14 the Eritrean Assembly unanimously adopted and ratified the Federal Act, and on July 10, 1952, the constitution was unanimously adopted. It entered into effect on September 11, 1952.

The establishment of the federation was formally welcomed by the General Assembly on December 17, 1952.

In accordance with a General Assembly resolution of January 29, 1952, the United Nations Tribunal in Eritrea was formally installed at Asmara on September 4, 1952, with executive jurisdiction on the disposal of the properties of the former Italian administration. Its functions formally ended on April 26, 1954.

PROCEDURE FOR DELIMITING THE BOUNDARIES OF THE FORMER ITALIAN COLONIES

On December 15, 1950, the Assembly recommended a detailed procedure for delimiting the boundaries of Libya, Somaliland, and other territories where the boundaries were not already delimited by international agreement.

The Question of Morocco

The question of Morocco was first raised at the sixth session of the General Assembly in 1951 when six Arab states complained of violation by France in Morocco of the principles of the Charter and the Declaration of Human Rights and asked the Assembly to consider the matter. At that session, the Assembly postponed consideration of the question "for the time being."

The question was raised again at the next session, and on December 19, 1952, the Assembly adopted a resolution, sponsored by eleven Latin American states, expressing confidence that France would "endeavor to further fundamental liberties of the people of Morocco" and that the parties would "continue negotiations towards developing the free political institutions of the people of Morocco."

On July 9, 1953, fifteen Asian and African states, contending that the Moroccan situation had worsened, requested that the Assembly consider the question at its eighth session.

On August 21 the same countries requested an urgent meeting of the Security Council to investigate the danger to international peace and security arising out of the intervention of France in Morocco and

the overthrow of its legitimate sovereign. The Security Council, however, decided not to include the item in the agenda.

The issue was discussed at the eighth, ninth, and tenth sessions of the General Assembly, and on December 3, 1955, the Assembly adopted a resolution whereby, noting that negotiations between France and Morocco were to be initiated regarding the question, it decided to postpone further consideration of the item.

On March 2, 1956, a joint declaration on the status of Morocco was signed by representatives of France and Morocco by which France recognized the independence of Morocco. Morocco applied for membership in the United Nations on July 4 and was admitted on November 12, 1956.

Questions Relating to Tunisia

THE TUNISIAN QUESTION BEFORE THE SECURITY COUNCIL AND THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY, 1952-54

Eleven Asian and African members of the United Nations asked the Security Council on April 2, 1952, to consider "the present grave situation in Tunisia." France argued that since there had been a recent agreement between the Bey and the Resident-General of Tunisia, there was no domestic dispute between France and Tunisia. After considerable discussion, the proposal to include the question in the agenda was defeated on April 14.

On July 30, 1952, thirteen Asian and African states asked that the Tunisian question be included in the provisional agenda of the General Assembly's seventh session.

On December 17 the Assembly adopted a resolution, whereby, in part, it expressed the hope that the parties would continue negotiations with a view to bringing about self-government for the Tunisians and appealed to the parties to settle their disputes in accordance with the spirit of the Charter.

The Assembly considered the Tunisian question again at its eighth and ninth sessions. As at the seventh session, France declined to participate in the discussion, arguing that the question was a matter of domestic jurisdiction.

On December 17, 1954, at its ninth session, the General Assembly adopted a resolution under which the Assembly, noting with satisfaction that the parties concerned had entered into negotiations, expressed confidence that the negotiations would bring about a satisfactory solution and decided to postpone further consideration of the question.

Negotiations between France and Tunisia resulted in a protocol agreement signed on March 20, 1956. Tunisia applied for membership

in the United Nations on July 14, and was admitted on November 12, 1956.

COMPLAINTS OF TUNISIA AND FRANCE IN 1958

Tunisia, on February 13, 1958, lodged a complaint before the Security Council that France had committed an act of aggression on February 8, when French military aircraft subjected the border town of Sakiet-Sidi-Youssef to massive bombardment.

On the following day France also placed a complaint before the Council. This concerned the situation resulting from the aid furnished by Tunisia to rebels whose operations, France stated, were directed against the integrity of French territory.

The Council dealt with these complaints on February 18, but it decided to adjourn pending the results of conciliation efforts by the United States and the United Kingdom. Subsequently, the Council received a number of communications from France and Tunisia concerning other incidents, and the charges were considered at meetings held on June 2 and 4.

On June 18 France and Tunisia informed the Council that it had been agreed that all French forces would be evacuated from Tunisia within four months, except those stationed at Bizerte.

COMMUNICATIONS OF FRANCE AND TUNISIA IN 1959

On February 16, 1959, the representative of Tunisia informed the President of the Security Council that French aircraft from Algeria had violated Tunisian air space and machine-gunned Tunisians.

In reply, the representative of France stated that three French aircraft had intercepted 10 kilometers west of the Tunisian border a military caravan from Tunisia, which was scattered and withdrew toward Tunisian territory. According to France, the incident constituted evidence of the use by Algerian rebels of bases in Tunisia.

COMMUNICATIONS IN 1960

In a letter of April 28, 1960, to the President of the Security Council, Tunisia listed several violations of Tunisian territory by French armed forces, and declared that the gravity of the situation might cause Tunisia to exercise its right of self-defense in accordance with Article 51 of the United Nations Charter.

On May 2, 1960, France, in its reply to the President of the Security Council, stated that the situation on the Algerian-Tunisian border was created by armed rebel units operating from Tunisian territory.

TUNISIAN COMPLAINT OF AGGRESSION
BY FRANCE IN 1961

On July 21, 1961, the Security Council began consideration of a Tunisian complaint against France concerning "acts of aggression" by French troops in Bizerte. Tunisia charged France with "an armed, premeditated, and continuing aggression" and asked the Council to bring about immediate cessation of the aggression, assist Tunisia, if necessary, to repel this aggression, and give Tunisia assistance in the elimination of the "permanent danger of aggression inherent in the presence of French troops" at Bizerte. According to Tunisia, Bizerte had been under attack by French navy and air force since the afternoon of July 19.

France denied any responsibility for the "tragic" developments, claiming that it had abided scrupulously by the 1958 Franco-Tunisian agreement regarding Bizerte. Its action had been taken in legitimate defense and had been brought about on "a minor pretext" involving work on two or three meters of terrain to facilitate aircraft landings. The French representative stated that his Government was ready to discuss conditions for an immediate cease-fire.

On July 22, the Council adopted an "interim" resolution calling for a cease-fire in Tunisia. Two other draft resolutions failed to receive the required majority. At this time, also, the President of Tunisia appealed for a direct and personal exchange of views between himself and the Secretary-General. The Secretary-General, considering it "his duty to explore the possibilities of improving this disturbing situation by making an effort to establish immediately the necessary contact between the two parties, the basis for which must obviously be strict compliance with the terms of the resolution and respect for Tunisian sovereignty," made a flying trip to Tunisia.

On July 27, however, Tunisia complained that the interim resolution had not been complied with by French military forces from the outset, and asked that the Council be convened again, which it was on July 28.

The Council, in the following two days, heard a report by the Secretary-General on his trip and considered and rejected three resolutions. The first resolution, submitted by Ceylon, Liberia, and the United Arab Republic, would have had the Council express its serious concern over the fact that France had not complied fully with the resolution of July 22 and that the situation continued to represent a serious threat to international peace and security, and would have invited France to comply immediately with all the provisions of the interim resolution. The second resolution, submitted by the same three powers, would have had the Council invite France immediately to enter into negotiations with Tunisia with a view to the rapid evacuation of French forces from Tunisia. The third draft resolution, sub-

mitted by Turkey, would have had the Council express its concern that the resolution had not been fully carried out; call for immediate and full implementation of that resolution; and urge the early opening of negotiations for a peaceful resolution of differences, including a definitive settlement on the question of Bizerte.

The failure of the Security Council to take action and the continuation of a grave situation in Tunisia led thirty-eight delegations to request the convening of a special session of the General Assembly to consider the matter.

On the last day of its session the Assembly, which met from August 21 to 25, 1961, adopted a resolution sponsored by thirty-two nations, reaffirming the Security Council's "interim" resolution of July 22 and urging France to carry out fully its provision regarding "an immediate cease-fire and return of all armed forces to their original positions." The Assembly also called upon the Governments of France and Tunisia "to enter into immediate negotiations to devise peaceful and agreed measures in accordance with the principles of the Charter for the withdrawal of all French armed forces from Tunisian territory."

The Question of the Sudan-Egyptian Border

On February 20, 1958, the Sudan requested an urgent meeting of the Security Council to discuss "the grave situation of the Sudan-Egyptian border resulting from the massed concentration of Egyptian troops moving towards the Sudanese frontiers."

The Council considered the question on February 21 but following subsequent conciliatory statements by Egypt and the Sudan on February 21, did not deal with the item further.

The Question of Algeria

On January 5, 1955, Saudi Arabia drew the attention of the Security Council to the situation in Algeria, which in its opinion was likely to endanger the maintenance of international peace and security. Saudi Arabia charged that the French were attempting to obliterate the national, cultural, and religious characteristics of Algeria by means of ruthless military operations to liquidate the nationalist uprising against French colonial rule in Algeria. Saudi Arabia reserved its right to call for a meeting of the Council to consider the matter.

Later that year, the question of Algeria was placed on the agenda of the tenth session of the Assembly at the request of fourteen African-Asian states, but after some discussion the item was not considered further.

On April 12, 1956, seventeen states drew the attention of the Security Council to the grave situation in Algeria, declaring that that situation had deteriorated to such an extent that the United Nations

could not remain indifferent to the threat to peace and security, to the infringement of the basic right of self-determination, and to the flagrant violation of other fundamental human rights.

Two months later, on June 13, the representatives of thirteen states requested an early meeting of the Council to consider the situation, charging that since the submission of the earlier memorandum the situation in Algeria had worsened. The Council, however, rejected the proposal to include the question in its agenda.

On October 25, 1956, France requested that an item entitled "Military assistance rendered by the Egyptian Government to the rebels in Algeria" should be placed on the Council's agenda. The Security Council agreed to include the item in the agenda, but the question was not considered.

At the eleventh session of the General Assembly in 1956, fifteen Asian and African states requested the inclusion of the Algerian question in the agenda. The Assembly, on February 15, 1957, expressed the hope that in a spirit of cooperation a peaceful, democratic, and just solution would be found, in conformity with the principles of the Charter of the United Nations.

The question was again included in the agenda at the twelfth session of the Assembly upon the request of twenty-two Asian and African states. On December 10, 1957, the General Assembly again expressed its concern over the situation in Algeria, took note of the offer of good offices made by the King of Morocco and the President of the Republic of Tunisia, and expressed the wish that, in a spirit of effective cooperation, *pourparlers* would be entered into and other appropriate means utilized with a view to a solution in conformity with the purposes and principles of the United Nations Charter.

The question was discussed again during the Assembly's thirteenth session in 1958, but no decision was taken.

On July 10, 1959, a group of member states again brought the situation in Algeria to the attention of the Security Council, declaring that it was a threat to international peace and security, involved the infringement of the basic right of self-determination, and constituted a flagrant violation of other fundamental human rights. France, in reply, stated that under Article 2, paragraph 7, the Security Council was not competent to deal with the matter.

Later that year the Assembly included the question in the agenda of its fourteenth session over objections by France. The item was discussed without the participation of France, but no resolution on the subject was adopted.

In 1960, at its fifteenth session, the Assembly, having again included the item in the agenda against France's objections, adopted a resolution stressing the right of the Algerian people to self-determination.

At its sixteenth session in 1961, the Assembly, regretting the

suspension of negotiations between France and the Provisional Government of the Algerian Republic, called upon both parties to resume negotiations with a view to implementing the right of the Algerian people to self-determination and independence respecting the unity and territorial integrity of Algeria.

The Status of Algerians Imprisoned in France

On November 15, 1961, during the General Assembly's debate on "the situation with regard to the implementation of the Declaration on the granting of independence to colonial countries and peoples" and "assistance to Africa," the representative of Pakistan submitted, as a matter of great urgency, a draft resolution on the status of Algerians imprisoned in France. He pointed out that several thousand Algerian prisoners were on a hunger strike and that that matter, which was essentially a humanitarian question, should be dealt with urgently. The draft resolution was cosponsored by thirty-five other delegations.

On the same day, the Assembly adopted a resolution which called upon France "in accordance with established international practice and humanitarian principles, to redress the legitimate grievances of the Algerian prisoners in recognizing their status as political prisoners with a view to making possible the immediate termination of the hunger strike."

The Problem of Mauritania

In 1960, the problem of Mauritania was placed on the agenda of the fifteenth session of the General Assembly upon the request of Morocco, which claimed that Mauritania—within the borders assigned to it by France—had always been an integral part of Moroccan national territory and that France, by intending to grant independence to Mauritania, was attempting to sanction the final separation of this region from the rest of Morocco.

France held that the Moroccan claim was not justified, whether on geographical or historical, ethnographic, juridical, or political grounds; that Mauritania was not an issue between France and Morocco; and that if the Mauriticians wished to forge special bonds with any particular country, they were free to do so.

Without adopting a formal resolution on the subject, the Assembly on December 18, 1960, took note of the report of the First Committee, where the question had been discussed.

Mauritania attained independence on November 28, 1960, and on the same day it applied for membership in the United Nations. On October 27, 1961, the country was admitted to membership.

The Question of the Congo (Leopoldville)

The Congo, a former Belgian-administered territory in Central Africa, became independent on June 30, 1960. On July 5, a mutiny broke out in the *Force publique* (its national army) and grave acts of violence were committed against Belgian officers and civilians. The disorders led to a mass exodus of Belgian administrators and technicians resulting in the breakdown of essential services and the stoppage of important economic activities in many parts of the country.

On July 10 metropolitan Belgian troops flown from Europe intervened, without the agreement of the Congolese Government, and occupied Elisabethville, Luluabourg, and, later, other towns. In the wake of the entry of Belgian troops into Elisabethville, the independence of the province of Katanga was proclaimed by Moïse Tshombé, the President of the Provincial Government.

On July 12 Joseph Kasa-Vubu, the President of the Republic of the Congo, and Patrice Lumumba, the Prime Minister of the Republic, jointly addressed a telegram to the Secretary-General of the United Nations, Dag Hammarskjöld, requesting urgent dispatch by the United Nations of military assistance to protect the national territory of the Congo against external aggression which they said was a threat to international peace. The Congolese leaders also asked the United Nations to put an end to the secession of Katanga and accused Belgium of having fostered a colonialist conspiracy by carefully preparing that secession with a view to maintaining a hold on the Congo.

The Secretary-General brought the Congo requests to the attention of the Security Council which on July 14, 1960, adopted a resolution calling upon Belgium to withdraw its troops from the Congo and authorizing the Secretary-General to take the necessary steps, in consultation with the Congolese Government, to provide the latter with such military and technical assistance as might be necessary until the Congolese national security forces could fully meet their responsibilities. At the same time the Council rejected three USSR amendments which would have condemned armed aggression by Belgium, called for immediate withdrawal of Belgian troops, and would have limited the military assistance to be provided to that of African member states of the United Nations.

In order to carry out the resolution, the Secretary-General set up the United Nations Operation in the Congo (*Opération des Nations Unies au Congo*), or ONUC. Placed under the authority of a special representative of the Secretary-General (since May 1961, of an "Officer-in-Charge"), ONUC is composed on the one hand of civilian operations and on the other of an international armed peace force, the United Nations Force in the Congo. This force, made up of contingents from states other than the great powers but placed under the exclusive command of the United Nations, was under standing

orders to use force only in self-defense and not to intervene in the internal affairs of the Congo. However, later, when the internal conflict in the Congo worsened, the Security Council on February 21, 1961, authorized the use of force as a last resort to prevent civil war. In another resolution adopted on November 24, 1961 it authorized the use of force to eliminate mercenaries and other foreign personnel not under United Nations command.

The main problems faced by ONUC in carrying out its mandate were the withdrawal of Belgian troops, the maintenance of law and order, the constitutional crisis, the secession of Katanga, and the provision of technical assistance. These problems are set forth separately below although many of them are closely interrelated.

WITHDRAWAL OF BELGIAN TROOPS

Immediately after the adoption of the Security Council resolution of July 14, 1960, Dr. Ralph J. Bunche, the first special representative of the Secretary-General in the Congo, entered into negotiations with the Belgian representatives in Leopoldville for the speedy withdrawal of their troops. It was agreed that the Belgian troops would withdraw from the positions they occupied as soon as these positions were taken over by the United Nations Force.

On July 15, less than 48 hours after the Security Council resolution, the first United Nations contingent landed in Leopoldville. It was followed without interruption by others until the strength of the United Nations Force reached a maximum of about 20,000. As soon as the United Nations soldiers arrived, they relieved the Belgian troops, first in Leopoldville, then in the other parts of the Congo except Katanga and the two military bases of Kamina and Kitona, and, finally, in these three areas also. The entry into Katanga was achieved in August 1960. By the beginning of September there were no Belgian troops left in the entire territory of the Congo.

The entry into Katanga gave rise to serious differences between the Secretary-General and Patrice Lumumba, then Prime Minister of the Congo Government. Mr. Lumumba demanded that ONUC assist him in putting down by force the secession of Katanga. The Secretary-General refused to accede to this demand maintaining that to do so would be contrary to ONUC's mandate. The Secretary-General's stand regarding ONUC's mandate was upheld by the Security Council in a resolution adopted on August 9 in which the Council stated, among other things, that ONUC "will not be a party to or in any way intervene in or be used to influence the outcome of any internal conflict, constitutional or otherwise."

The Secretary-General succeeded in his effort to secure the entry of United Nations troops into Katanga without using force, by

means of negotiations through the Belgian authorities. On August 12, he personally led the first United Nations contingent into Katanga. The Secretary-General's stand regarding the use of United Nations troops in the Congo and the manner of the entry into Katanga were deeply resented by Mr. Lumumba who henceforth refused to cooperate with the Secretary-General.

Mr. Lumumba's position was expressed in an exchange of correspondence between him and the Secretary-General beginning August 14 in the course of which the Congolese Prime Minister described the Secretary-General's interpretation of the Security Council resolution as "unilateral and erroneous." He considered that under the Security Council resolution United Nations troops could be used to subdue the rebel government of Katanga and that the Secretary-General had acted without authority in dealing directly with the provincial government. He declared that his government had lost its confidence in the Secretary-General.

MAINTENANCE OF LAW AND ORDER

Deployed in various areas of the Congo where their arrival brought about the automatic withdrawal of Belgian troops, the United Nations Force made every effort to assist the Congo Government in restoring law and order, protect the lives and property of the civilian population, Africans and Europeans alike, and ensure the continued operation of the essential services. In performing these functions, ONUC was enjoined by the Secretary-General to avoid any action that would put it in the role of a government and to limit its activities to giving advice and assistance to the Congo Government.

A constitutional crisis broke out on 5 September 1960 when the President of the Republic, Joseph Kasa-Vubu, dismissed Prime Minister Lumumba and asked the President of the Senate, Joseph Iléo, to form a new government. Mr. Lumumba, in turn, announced that President Kasa-Vubu was no longer Chief of State. On September 13 power in the Republic was seized by Col. Joseph Mobutu, Chief of Staff of the Army. The crisis thus engendered lasted for 11 months during which there was no legal government and, after a confused struggle for power, the country found itself divided into four opposing camps, each with its own armed forces. Without a legal government with which it could deal, ONUC's policy was to continue to carry out its mandate in cooperation, on the local level, with the authorities actually in control of the area whenever necessary. During this period of deepening unrest, ONUC exerted its best efforts to protect the many political leaders threatened by their opponents. Measures had also to be taken to avert civil war between the rival factions and prevent a resurgence of tribal violence.

During the constitutional crisis, ONUC's efforts were mainly directed at two objectives. ONUC endeavored to prevent the leaders wielding power from subduing their opponents by force, while at the same time it encouraged all leaders to seek a solution of their differences through negotiation and conciliation.

This stand was endorsed by the General Assembly, which examined the problem at an emergency special session held from September 17 to 20, 1960, after the Security Council had failed to arrive at a decision. In its resolution of September 20, the Assembly appealed to all Congolese to seek a peaceful solution of their internal conflict and provided for the establishment of a Conciliation Commission to assist Congolese leaders for this purpose.

ACTIONS REGARDING PATRICE LUMUMBA

In December 1960 Ambassador Rajeshwar Dayal of India, who had succeeded Dr. Bunche as the Secretary-General's Special Representative in the Congo, reported that Mr. Lumumba, whose residence had been guarded by United Nations troops, had fled from his residence on November 27 to 28 but had been apprehended by Congolese troops on December 1. He had been brought to Leopoldville on December 2 and transferred to Thysville on December 3. Two members of Parliament, Mr. Mpolo and Mr. Okito, had also been arrested.

At the call of the USSR the Security Council met from December 7 to 13 to consider the question but failed to adopt either of the two draft resolutions submitted; one by the USSR, among other things, would have called upon the Secretary-General to obtain the release of Mr. Lumumba and other parliamentarians; the other by Argentina, Italy, the United Kingdom and United States would have requested the Secretary-General to take measures to safeguard civil and human rights within the Congo. By this latter draft resolution the Council would have also expressed the hope that the International Red Cross would be allowed to examine detained persons throughout the Republic.

A third draft resolution, by Poland, which would have had the Security Council request the Secretary-General to undertake the necessary measures to obtain the release of Mr. Lumumba and other officials was also rejected.

The transfer of Mr. Lumumba and his companions from Thysville to Elisabethville in Katanga in January 1961 and their subsequent murder in February led to a fresh crisis both in the Congo and in the United Nations where the USSR called for the dismissal of Mr. Hammarskjöld and announced that it would not, henceforth, recognize him as Secretary-General of the United Nations. A majority of member states, however, continued to support Mr. Hammarskjöld and the operations of the United Nations in the Congo.

FORMATION OF A NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

The Conciliation Commission established by the General Assembly on September 20 visited the Congo at the beginning of 1961. The Commission reported that its attempt to reconcile the opposing groups had not led to positive results because of the intransigent attitude of some of the leaders who held the reins of power. It considered that the crisis could be solved only if Parliament were reconvened and a national unity government were approved by it. It also found that one of the main obstacles to a speedy solution was foreign interference in the internal affairs of the Congo.

These views were similar to those expressed by the Secretary-General and were largely reflected in the decision taken by the Security Council, which met in February 1961 to examine once again the Congo problem. The Security Council urged that Parliament be convened and that the necessary measures be taken for this purpose.

In the first months of 1961, a number of meetings were held between various Congolese leaders in an attempt to solve the crisis, but none of them led to a positive result. During the Conference of Coquilhatville, in May 1961, President Kasa-Vubu announced his intention to reconvene Parliament in the near future and requested United Nations assistance and protection for this purpose. ONUC acceded to this request and played a major role in bringing about an agreement between the main political groups on the re-opening of Parliament. It also assumed the responsibility for making arrangements for the opening session of Parliament and for ensuring full protection to the parliamentarians.

Parliament was re-opened on June 22, 1961, with more than 200 members attending out of a total of 221. Only Antoine Gizenga, head of the Stanleyville group, and the whole of Moïse Tshombé's South Katanga group, were missing. On August 2, Cyrille Adoula, at the request of President Kasa-Vubu, formed a national unity government, which was unanimously approved by Parliament.

With the approval of the national unity government, the constitutional crisis was ended, but two leaders still stood in the way of full national unity: Mr. Gizenga in Orientale province and Mr. Tshombé in the south of Katanga province. Mr. Gizenga, although appointed Vice-Prime Minister in the new Government, subsequently opposed its authority. He was censured by Parliament, and his parliamentary immunity was lifted. He was later detained by the Congolese authorities pending trial. Mr. Tshombé's case is dealt with in the section on the problem of Katanga.

THE SECESSION OF KATANGA

The secession of Katanga, which was made possible by foreign interference, was undoubtedly the most difficult problem facing ONUC.

From the very outset, ONUC was wholly opposed to the secession but, despite the insistence of Prime Minister Lumumba, it refused to intervene directly and help him put down the secession. What ONUC sought to do was to eliminate the foreign interventions which brought about the secession and to encourage and facilitate negotiation and reconciliation between the Central Government and Katangese authorities.

The withdrawal of the Belgian troops from Katanga was completed at the beginning of September 1960, but after the departure of these troops, foreign interference took more subtle forms and the secessionist regime was further strengthened, particularly during the constitutional crisis, by the introduction of foreign political advisers, military and paramilitary personnel, and mercenaries. This aspect of the problem was stressed by the Security Council in its resolution of February 21, 1961, when it urged that measures be taken for the immediate withdrawal of such foreign personnel.

Measures were taken by the Secretary-General to carry out this decision, but they were hampered by the uncooperative attitude of Katanga authorities and the absence of a legal central government. Belgian advisers and officers were recalled by their Government; some foreign personnel were evacuated by ONUC. However, most of them remained. As of June 1961, there were more than 500 foreign military personnel and mercenaries in the Katangese *gendarmerie*.

During the discussions and negotiations which had taken place prior to the re-opening of Parliament, many overtures had been made in vain to Mr. Tshombé by the other leaders. After the formation of the national unity government in Leopoldville in August, 1961, Prime Minister Adoula again attempted to win him over, and again his attempts were frustrated. In order to remove what it believed to be the main obstacle to a peaceful solution of the Katanga problem, the Government ordered, on August 24, the expulsion of mercenaries serving in Katanga and requested ONUC's assistance in carrying out this decision, a course to which ONUC was already committed.

On August 28, ONUC proceeded to round up mercenaries in Elisabethville for deportation, after having taken certain security precautions, including surveillance over the Elisabethville radio station, the *gendarmerie* headquarters, and other key points. The rounding up operation, which lasted only a few hours, was successful and peaceful. Mr. Tshombé, who had been informed of the goals of ONUC's action, expressed his readiness to cooperate. Some 300 military personnel were rounded up, and the operation was suspended when the consular corps assumed the responsibility and promised to bring about the repatriation of the remaining foreign elements.

Unfortunately, this promise was not fully kept. Many mercenaries were "missing" and went underground, while the Katangese authorities launched a violent propaganda campaign against ONUC. On September 13 ONUC decided to repeat the August 28 operation under

the same conditions, but before the operation could get under way, United Nations troops were attacked by Katangese *gendarmarie*. Thus began the hostilities of September 1961.

As soon as the hostilities began, ONUC endeavored to achieve a cease-fire. The Secretary-General, who had earlier arrived in Leopoldville, decided to deal personally with the matter. It was on his flight to Ndola, Northern Rhodesia—to meet Mr. Tshombé—on September 18, that Mr. Hammarskjöld and seven other United Nations staff members and the crew of the aircraft were killed in the crash of the aircraft. The peace-making task was immediately taken over by other United Nations officials and three days later a cease-fire agreement was concluded between Mr. Tshombé and ONUC. The agreement was endorsed by United Nations Headquarters on the understanding that it would in no way impede the implementation of Security Council and General Assembly resolutions.

However, the Katangese authorities were soon flouting the provisions of the cease-fire agreement, and the situation continued to worsen. In November, shortly after the appointment of U Thant as Acting Secretary-General, the Security Council met once again to examine the situation in the Congo. In its resolution of November 24, the Council opposed the secessionist activities in Katanga and authorized the Secretary-General to use the requisite measure of force to complete the removal of mercenaries.

Immediately after the adoption of the resolution, the Katangese authorities launched a propaganda campaign against ONUC, which soon led to open violence. ONUC personnel were beaten up, abducted, and killed by Katangese *gendarmarie*, and roadblocks were erected to impede the movements of United Nations troops. After attempting in vain to settle the crisis by peaceful negotiations, ONUC decided on December 5 to take action to remove the roadblocks and regain its freedom of movement. Fighting ensued once again between United Nations and Katanga forces.

During the fighting, ONUC troops and aircraft took all possible measures to ensure that their attacks were limited strictly to military objectives. Strict orders were given to ONUC troops to safeguard to every possible extent the lives and properties of the civilian population. These orders were generally observed, although it was often difficult to do so as time and again ONUC troops found themselves subjected to heavy fire from civilian installations by persons in civilian dress. As soon as it had occupied the positions necessary for its security and freedom of movement, ONUC ordered its troops, on December 19, to hold fire unless fired upon. Immediately thereafter it turned its efforts to re-establishing normal conditions in Elisabethville, in co-operation with the Katangese police wherever possible.

Mr. Tshombé left Elisabethville on December 19 to confer with Prime Minister Adoula in Kitona. The meeting had been arranged

with the assistance of ONUC and the United States Ambassador in the Congo following a request made by Mr. Tshombé. As a result of the Kitona talks, Mr. Tshombé signed, on December 21, 1961, an eight-point declaration whereby he accepted the application of the *loi fondamentale*, recognized the authority of the Central Government, and agreed to a number of steps aimed at ending the secession of Katanga.

On his return from Kitona, Mr. Tshombé sent several Katangese parliamentarians to Leopoldville to participate in the Central Parliament, but referred the Kitona Declaration to the provincial assembly which, on February 15, 1962, accepted it only as a basis for discussion. From March to June 1962 Mr. Tshombé held two series of negotiations in Leopoldville with Prime Minister Adoula under United Nations auspices and safe conduct. These finally broke down as a result of the procrastination and intransigence of the Katangese leader.

In view of the failure of the negotiations, the Acting Secretary-General himself, after consultations with various member states, proposed in August 1962 a "Plan of National Reconciliation," which was presented to both Mr. Adoula and Mr. Tshombé as a reasonable basis for settling the differences between the Central Government and the Province of Katanga. In the main the Plan provided for a federal system of government; division of revenues and foreign exchange earnings between the Central and Provincial Governments; unification of the currency; integration and unification of all military, paramilitary, and *gendarmerie* units into the structure of a national army; proclamation of a general amnesty; reconstitution of the Central Government to provide representation for all political and provincial groups; withdrawal of all representatives abroad not serving under the authority of the Central Government; and freedom of movement for United Nations personnel throughout the Congo.

The Plan was immediately accepted by Prime Minister Adoula and, after a short delay, by Mr. Tshombé. A draft federal constitution was speedily prepared by experts provided by the United Nations. Moreover, on November 26, President Kasa-Vubu issued a Proclamation of Amnesty. On the Katanga side, however, no substantial steps were taken toward implementing its acceptance. Accordingly, and after further consultations with member governments, the Secretary-General, on December 13, requested various member states in a position to do so to bring economic pressure on the Katanga authorities, in particular by stopping the exports of copper and cobalt from Katanga.

Before these measures could take effect, the security situation in South Katanga deteriorated once more. ONUC troops in Elisabethville were subjected to increased harassment culminating in a six-day period of unprovoked firing by the Katangese *gendarmerie* on United Nations positions, which ONUC troops did not answer. After repeated

unsuccessful discussions with Mr. Tshombé, United Nations troops on December 28 took action to remove *gendarmérie* road blocks near Elisabethville and subsequently to secure for themselves freedom of movement throughout Katanga. During these operations, in which little resistance was met, every opportunity was given to Mr. Tshombé and his provincial ministers to give practical evidence of their readiness to put into effect the Plan of National Reconciliation, while at the same time they were warned against carrying out their threats of massive destruction of the mining and power installations in South Katanga.

On January 14, 1963, Mr. Tshombé and his ministers indicated that they were ready to proclaim the end of Katangese secession, to grant freedom of movement to United Nations troops, and to cooperate with the United Nations in the implementation of the Plan. They asked, however, for confirmation that the Amnesty Proclamation remained valid and this was immediately provided by both President Kasa-Vubu and Prime Minister Adoula. On January 21, the United Nations troops entered unopposed into Kolwezi, the last important town held by Katangese forces. On January 23, Mr. Iléo arrived in Elisabethville as Minister Resident of the Central Government for the reintegration of South Katanga.

CIVILIAN OPERATIONS

When the United Nations went into the Congo in July 1960, the country was in the throes of a dire emergency. The mass exodus of Belgian technicians and administrators was threatening to paralyze its entire economy, essential services were in imminent danger of breaking down, unemployment was rapidly rising in the cities, and hunger and disease loomed. To provide the Congo Government with the technical assistance it needed, the Secretary-General set up, in close cooperation with the specialized agencies, the civilian operations of ONUC.

In the beginning, at the same time as United Nations troops were striving to restore law and order, ONUC experts were helping to ensure the continued operation of the essential services. After the emergency had been met, long-range programs were drawn up, in consultation with the Congo Government, to restore and re-organize the government services and to ensure the continued development of the national economy. Particular emphasis was placed on the training of qualified Congolese in various services.

The implementation of these programs was begun without delay, but was soon slowed down, first by the refusal of Prime Minister Lumumba to cooperate with ONUC and later because of the constitutional crisis which for 11 months deprived the country of a legal government. ONUC continued its efforts nevertheless, but it was only

after the formation of the Adoula Government that its programs could be carried out at full speed.

With ONUC's efforts, the government services were fully resumed. Training courses were organized for air traffic controllers, agricultural assistants, labor officials, police commissioners, etc. A national school of law and administration was established to produce competent civil servants, as were a national pedagogical institute and a technical college for the training of junior engineers and public works foremen. In addition, a great number of fellowships for study abroad were awarded to school directors, medical students, police officers, social workers, and others in need of training for which adequate facilities were not available in the Congo.

The scope of civilian operations was further increased, within the limits of available funds, in 1962. At the close of the year there were 693 Congolese nationals undertaking training courses in various institutions in the Congo under United Nations sponsorship. In overseas institutions there were 241 more in training. In addition, 985 Congolese were attending in-service training courses in the Congo, and another 400 were attending various short-term seminars sponsored by the United Nations. The United Nations had recruited a total of 858 persons to ensure the maintenance of essential public services in the Congo. One hundred and forty-one expert advisers have been provided. There were in all 1,135 experts in the Congo, including 554 secondary school teachers.

Relief operations were also undertaken by ONUC, alone as well as in conjunction with the Red Cross. Such operations were constantly undertaken by ONUC on a small scale, but the most important one relates to the famine in South Kasai, in the autumn of 1960, where some 200 persons daily were reported dying from starvation. For six months ONUC shipped and distributed food and medical supplies in the area, and it was estimated that the operation saved the lives of about a quarter of a million persons.

The Situation in Angola

On February 20, 1961, Liberia requested an urgent meeting of the Security Council "to deal with the crisis in Angola" which, Liberia held, necessitated immediate action to prevent further deterioration and abuse of human rights and privileges. Portugal, the administering power of the territory, protested against consideration of the item by the Council as being "both illegal and absurd."

Between March 10 and 15, the Council discussed the question at four meetings, but a draft resolution submitted failed to be adopted.

The item, however, entitled "The situation in Angola" was later placed on the agenda of the second part of the General Assembly's fifteenth session. Portugal again opposed the inclusion of the question

in the agenda on the grounds that the matter had already been disposed of by the Security Council, that its inclusion would violate Article 2, paragraph 7, of the Charter, and that in no way could Chapter IX of the Charter be construed as giving the Organization authority to intervene in the domestic affairs of member states.

On April 20, the Assembly adopted a resolution paralleling that submitted previously in the Security Council. It called on Portugal to consider urgently the introduction of measures and reforms in Angola to implement the Assembly resolution of December 14, 1960—containing the Declaration on the granting of independence to colonial countries and Peoples—and provided for a five-member Sub-Committee on the situation in Angola to examine the statements made before the Assembly and to report to the Assembly. The following countries were subsequently nominated as members by the President of the Assembly: Bolivia, Dahomey, the Federation of Malaya, Finland, and the Sudan.

On May 26, 1961, forty-four countries requested that a meeting of the Security Council be called, as a matter of urgency, to consider the situation in Angola, where the massacres were continuing and human rights were being continually suppressed.

The following day the Soviet Union, in a statement transmitted to the Council, declared that it was the duty of all states to end the predatory colonial war in Angola, and demanded that an authoritative inquiry into the situation in Angola be held immediately with the participation of the African countries.

The Council, on June 9, adopted a resolution which, *inter alia*, requested the Sub-Committee on Angola to implement its mandate without delay. It also called upon the Portuguese authorities to desist forthwith from repressive measures and expressed hope that a peaceful solution would be found to the problem in accordance with the Charter.

On November 20, 1961 the Sub-Committee, after holding fifty-five meetings in New York, twenty-one in the Congo (Leopoldville), and several with representatives of the Portuguese Government in Lisbon, submitted its report to the Assembly's sixteenth session.

The Sub-Committee reported that it had given special attention to the causes of the disturbances and conflicts in Angola. It expressed the views that the policy of assimilation proclaimed by the Portuguese administration had not been accompanied by any active preparation of the indigenous population for the status of citizenship; that there had been many complaints about the denial of human rights, abuse of authority, and "high-handedness," especially by local administrative officials; and that there were also some indications of the existence of forced labor and excessive taxation. Other grievances concerned the inadequacy of economic and social development and of educational and medical facilities.

The Sub-Committee regretted that the Government of Portugal had maintained a negative attitude toward the recommendations of the United Nations. It was noted, however, that there was some Portuguese cooperation with the Organization, taking the form, for instance, of an invitation to the Sub-Committee's chairman to visit Lisbon and the transmission to the Sub-Committee of information on some reforms introduced in Portugal's overseas policy. These latter reflected, the Sub-Committee felt, some awareness by Portugal of the need to adjust its policies to the opinion of the international community.

In January 1962, the Assembly discussed the situation in Angola at fifteen plenary meetings. A majority of the African and Asian representatives considered that the situation in Angola was a threat to international peace, and that numerous Assembly resolutions, together with the Security Council resolution of June 9, 1961, had invalidated the assertion of the representative of Portugal that the Organization was not competent to deal with the question of Angola.

In a communication addressed to the President of the Assembly on January 27, the permanent representative of Portugal replied to various comments. He said that foreign terrorists were responsible for the crimes against persons and property in Angola; the inhabitants of the region had fled for safety in all directions; the arrival of reinforcements enabled the provincial authorities to restore order; and the region affected by terrorism comprised only about eight per cent of the total area of the province. "As for the threat to international peace and security," he said it was "a mare's nest maliciously raised in an effort to explain away attempts to force interference of the United Nations in the law and order problem of Angola, clearly a domestic affair of Portugal."

The Assembly rejected a draft resolution proposed by Bulgaria and Poland which would have had it, in part: reaffirm the right of the people of Angola to self-determination and independence; condemn the colonial war pursued by Portugal and demand that Portugal cease it immediately; recommend to all states that they deny Portugal any assistance; and suggest to the Security Council that it consider the application of sanctions against Portugal.

The Assembly did adopt, however, on January 30, a resolution in which it reaffirmed the inalienable right of the Angolan people to self-determination and independence and urged the Government of Portugal to undertake reforms in the territory without delay with a view to transferring power to the Angolans. The Assembly called on the Portuguese authorities to "desist forthwith" from repressive measures against the people of Angola and deeply deprecated such measures as well as armed action against them and the denial to them of human rights and fundamental freedoms.

The Sub-Committee met in the Congo (Leopoldville) from August 18 to 24, 1962, heard the views of Angolan groups, and visited areas along the frontier with Angola, in order to gather information on the situation in Angola from refugees who had recently arrived in the Congo from that territory.

In September, the Special Committee of seventeen—which had before it a report of the Special Committee on Territories under Portuguese Administration—considered Angola in two meetings. It drew up a draft resolution for the consideration of the Assembly at its seventeenth session (*see page 394*).

The Assembly on December 18, 1962, at its seventeenth session, adopted a resolution, which among other things, supported the inalienable right of the people of Angola to immediate self-determination and independence; condemned “the colonial war pursued by Portugal against the Angolan people;” called upon “the Portuguese authorities again to desist forthwith from armed action and repressive measures;” urged the Government of Portugal “without any further delay to (a) release all political prisoners; (b) lift the ban on political parties; and (c) undertake extensive political, economic and social measures that would ensure the creation of freely elected and representative political institutions and transfer of power to the people of Angola;” requested all member states “to deny Portugal any support or assistance which may be used by it for the suppression of the people of Angola and, in particular, to terminate the supply of arms to Portugal;” and requested the Security Council “to take appropriate measures, including sanctions, to secure Portugal’s compliance with this resolution.”

Communications Concerning Portuguese Guinea

The President of the Security Council received on December 22, 1961 and January 9, 1962, two communications, one from Senegal, and the other from Portugal.

Senegal stated that on December 16, units of the Portuguese army based in Portuguese Guinea had penetrated a village inside its territory; that on December 21 two Portuguese jet fighters had flown over the Senegalese region; and that motorized columns of the Portuguese army pursuing deserters had trespassed on Senegalese territory. Senegal considered these to be provocative acts.

Portugal replied that the reconnaissance patrol had, due to an error in the route, wandered into Senegalese territory; that the jets had, due to an error in navigation, flown in Senegalese air space; and, that Senegal’s allegations about the motorized columns were untrue. The Portuguese Government regretted these incidents.

Questions Relating to Europe

The Spanish Question

The General Assembly on February 9, 1946, recommended that member states act in accordance with a resolution of the San Francisco Conference and a three-power statement at the Potsdam Conference. The San Francisco Conference had resolved that Charter provisions for United Nations membership could not apply to states whose regimes had been installed with the help of the armed forces of ex-enemy countries so long as those regimes were in power. At the Potsdam Conference the United Kingdom, the United States, and the Soviet Union had stated that they would not support the Franco Government for admission to the United Nations.

In April 1946 Poland asked the Security Council to declare the existence of the Franco regime a threat to international peace and security, and to call on all members of the United Nations to sever diplomatic relations with it. This proposal was not carried.

On April 29, 1946, the Council set up a sub-committee of five, and on June 6 the majority of the sub-committee reported that the activities of the Franco regime constituted not an existing threat, but a "potential" menace to international peace. It suggested that its findings be transmitted to the Assembly with a recommendation that, unless the Franco regime were withdrawn and other conditions of political freedom satisfied, the Assembly recommend the severance of diplomatic relations. A resolution embodying these recommendations was not carried, however, because of the negative vote of the Soviet Union, which held that the findings had incorrectly labeled the Franco regime a "potential" rather than an "existing" threat to peace, and that the Council, rather than the Assembly, was the appropriate organ to call for the severance of diplomatic relations.

On December 12, 1946, the Assembly recommended that the Franco Government be barred from membership in international agencies established by or brought into relationship with the United Nations. It further suggested that the Security Council consider adequate measures to remedy the Spanish situation if a democratic Spanish Government were not established within a reasonable time. Finally, it recommended that members immediately recall their ambassadors and ministers plenipotentiary accredited to Madrid and report to the Secretary-General.

The Secretary-General reported to the second session of the Assembly on the implementation of this resolution.

On November 4, 1950, the Assembly renewed consideration of the question and revoked its recommendations in the 1946 resolution. It considered that the establishment of diplomatic relations and the exchange of ambassadors and ministers with a government did not

imply any judgment on the domestic policy of that government. Moreover, because the international agencies were technical and largely non-political in character and had been established to benefit the peoples of all nations, they should be free to decide for themselves whether the participation of Spain was desirable.

(Spain applied for United Nations membership on September 22, 1955, and was admitted on December 14 of that year.)

The Greek Question

Several issues arising from the situation in Greece have been considered by the United Nations.

USSR COMPLAINT

The Greek question was first taken up when, on January 21, 1946, the Soviet Union complained to the Security Council that the continued presence of British troops in Greece constituted interference in Greek internal affairs likely to endanger peace and security. The United Kingdom stated that British troops were in Greece by agreement with the Greek Government, and Greece denied interference. After discussion, the Council accepted its President's suggestion to take note of the declarations and consider the matter closed.

UKRAINIAN COMPLAINT

On August 24, 1946, the Ukrainian SSR complained to the Security Council that the policies of the Greek Government constituted a threat to peace.

Greece denied the charges and referred to frontier incidents allegedly provoked by Albania. On September 11 Albania itself asked the Council to take up the situation on the Greek-Albanian frontier allegedly resulting from continued violations by Greek soldiers. Four draft resolutions were proposed, but all were rejected, and the Council regarded the case as closed.

GREEK COMPLAINT

On December 3, 1946, Greece asked Security Council consideration of the situation in northern Greece resulting from aid allegedly provided to Greek guerrillas by the country's northern neighbors. These charges were denied by Albania, Bulgaria, and Yugoslavia.

On December 19 the Council established a commission of investigation composed of one representative of each member of the Council for 1947 to ascertain the causes and nature of the alleged border violations and to make proposals for averting a repetition. The

commission conducted investigations in northern Greece in 1947 and submitted a report with recommendations accepted by nine of its members.

In August Greece requested consideration of the question by the Council as a threat to the peace under Chapter VII of the Charter, but draft resolutions submitted by Australia and the United States failed of adoption. On September 15, the Council removed the question from its agenda.

Meanwhile, in March 1947, when the United States explained to the Council its policy of giving aid to Greece and Turkey, the Soviet Union criticized it as unilateral action and said such aid should be given through the United Nations. A Soviet proposal to establish a special commission, composed of representatives of the members of the Council, to ensure that aid received by Greece was used only in the interests of the Greek people, was rejected by the Council on April 18.

ASSEMBLY DECISIONS IN 1947

As the Council was unable to adopt any resolution in the summer of 1947, it decided on September 15 that the question should be taken off the list of matters of which the Council was seized.

The Assembly took up the question at its second session and on October 21, 1947, called on Albania, Bulgaria and Yugoslavia to do nothing to aid the Greek guerrillas. It asked those three countries and Greece to cooperate in settling their disputes through the establishment of normal diplomatic relations, frontier conventions, and cooperation in solving refugee and minority problems. The Assembly established an eleven-member United Nations Special Committee on the Balkans (UNSCOB) to assist the four Governments in complying with its recommendations and to observe how far they did so. UNSCOB's mandate was successively continued until the sixth session of the Assembly in 1951.

Poland and the Soviet Union—two of UNSCOB's members—declared that they would not participate in the Committee's work because they considered that its functions violated the sovereignty of Albania, Bulgaria and Yugoslavia.

After considering UNSCOB's first report, in which UNSCOB stated that it had been unable to aid the four Governments substantially in implementing the Assembly's recommendations, the Assembly on November 27, 1948, again called on Albania, Bulgaria, and Yugoslavia to stop supporting Greek guerrillas.

In another resolution embodying certain paragraphs of a Soviet proposal, the Assembly called on Greece, on the one hand, and Albania and Bulgaria, on the other, to establish diplomatic relations; and recommended that Greece, Albania, Bulgaria, and Yugoslavia

renew the conventions for the settlement of frontier questions or conclude new ones, and settle the refugee question in a spirit of mutual understanding.

UNSCOB, in its report to the fourth session of the Assembly in 1949, stated that Albania and Bulgaria had assisted the Greek guerrilla movement and had also encouraged the Greek guerrillas in their attempts to overthrow the Greek Government; it added that Yugoslavia had aided the guerrillas, but this aid had diminished and might even have ceased.

ASSEMBLY DECISIONS IN 1949

On November 18, 1949, the Assembly adopted a resolution stating that active assistance given to the Greek guerrillas by Albania in particular, by Bulgaria, and certain other states, including Romania, was contrary to the Charter and endangered peace in the Balkans. It declared that further foreign assistance to the guerrillas would justify a special session of the Assembly.

ASSEMBLY DECISIONS IN 1950

On December 1, 1950, at its fifth session, the Assembly took note of UNSCOP's conclusion that there remained a threat to Greece's political independence and territorial integrity.

ASSEMBLY DECISIONS IN 1951

In its report to the sixth session of the Assembly, UNSCOP stated that the threat to Greece continued, although changed in character since the retreat of the guerrilla forces in 1949. The guerrillas were receiving external aid from Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, and Romania. The Committee recommended considering the "advisability of maintaining United Nations vigilance over the Balkans in the light of the present nature of the threat to peace in that area."

On December 7, 1951, the Assembly endorsed this report and discontinued the Committee. It then provided for the establishment of a Balkan Sub-Commission by the Peace Observation Commission. To the Sub-Commission it gave authority (a) to dispatch observers to any area of international tension in the Balkans on the request of any state or states concerned, but only to the territory of states consenting thereto; (b) to visit any area in which such observation was being conducted; and (c) to consider such data as might be submitted to it by its members or observers and to report to the Peace Observation Commission and to the Secretary-General for the information of member states.

REPATRIATION OF GREEK CHILDREN

UNSCOB had reported that during 1948 some 25,000 Greek children had been removed from Greece and retained in the territories of Greece's northern neighbors and other countries. In November 1948 the Assembly asked for the return to Greece of all Greek children who asked to be returned or whose parents or close relatives requested it.

A year later, the Assembly instructed the Secretary-General to ask the International Committee of the Red Cross and the League of Red Cross Societies to continue their efforts and urged all United Nations members and other states harboring Greek children to co-operate.

Another year later, on December 1, 1950, the Assembly noted "with grave concern" that not a single child had been returned to his native land and, with the exception of Yugoslavia, no country harboring those children had complied definitely with the previous resolutions. In a new effort to bring about repatriation, the Assembly set up a standing committee composed of the representatives of Peru, the Philippines, and Sweden and asked the International Red Cross organizations to continue their efforts.

At its sixth session, in February 1952, the Assembly recognized that efforts must be continued toward the Greek children, noted "with satisfaction" that some children had been repatriated from Yugoslavia, and expressed the hope that rapid progress would be possible with the repatriation of those in Czechoslovakia.

At its seventh session in 1952 the Assembly decided that work for the repatriation of Greek children, except in Yugoslavia, should be suspended until conditions were established which would make such action practical and useful, and that the standing committee should be discontinued. The Assembly also noted with satisfaction that further groups of children had been repatriated from Yugoslavia, and it requested the Red Cross to continue its work there until all Greek children had been repatriated.

The Corfu Channel Question

On January 10, 1947, the United Kingdom brought to the Security Council's attention a dispute with Albania concerning damage to British warships and injury to British naval personnel by mines in the Corfu Channel during October 1946. The United Kingdom alleged that Albania was responsible, but Albania denied the charge and accused Britain of violating its sovereignty in territorial waters.

The Council on April 9 recommended that Britain and Albania refer their dispute to the International Court of Justice. (*For subsequent developments, see page 395.*)

Free Territory of Trieste

The responsibility of ensuring the independence and integrity of the Free Territory of Trieste, including the appointment of a Governor, was accepted by the Security Council on January 10, 1947.

In July 1948 Yugoslavia proposed that the Security Council declare that certain financial agreements between Italy and the Allied Military Command were in violation of the Italian Peace Treaty. The Ukrainian SSR proposed that the Council consider it urgently necessary to settle the question of the appointment of a Governor, a problem which the permanent members of the Council, and later Italy and Yugoslavia, had consulted about, but which had gone unresolved. Both proposals were rejected by the Council.

On October 5, 1954, Italy, the United Kingdom, the United States, and Yugoslavia transmitted to the Security Council a Memorandum of Understanding concerning the Free Territory of Trieste. The Memorandum provided for certain boundary adjustments between Yugoslavia and the Free Territory, on the completion of which the United Kingdom, the United States, and Yugoslavia would withdraw their military forces from the area north of the new boundary and relinquish the administration of that area to Italy. The Governments of Italy and Yugoslavia would then extend their civil administration over the areas allotted to them. On October 12 the representative of the Soviet Union informed the President of the Security Council that his Government had taken cognizance of the agreement.

The Czechoslovak Situation

At the request of Chile, the Security Council in March 1948 considered a request from Jan Papanek, permanent representative of Czechoslovakia, for an investigation of events preceding and succeeding the change of government in Czechoslovakia in February 1948.

Czechoslovakia declined an invitation to participate in the discussion on grounds of domestic jurisdiction.

A proposal to appoint a sub-committee to receive evidence was not adopted because of the negative vote of the Soviet Union.

The Berlin Question

On September 29, 1948, France, the United Kingdom, and the United States drew attention to the serious situation which had arisen "as the result of the unilateral imposition by the Government of the USSR of restrictions on transport and communications between the Western zones of occupation in Germany and Berlin."

The Security Council considered this question at several meetings beginning October 4. The USSR questioned the Council's com-

petence, and, after the question was placed on the Council's agenda, the USSR and the Ukrainian SSR announced that they would not take part in the discussion.

Between October and May 1949, a number of Council members informally considered ways of solving the problem and later submitted a draft resolution, which was vetoed by the Soviet Union. In addition, the Council President set up a Technical Committee on Currency Problems and Trade in Berlin but it was unable to work out an acceptable solution.

On May 4, 1949, following informal conversations at the United Nations between the representatives of the four occupying powers, the Secretary-General was requested by France, the United Kingdom, and the United States to notify the Security Council that an agreement had been concluded between them and the USSR, removing, as of May 12, all restrictions imposed by both sides since March 1, 1948, on communications, transport, and trade between Germany and their respective zones of occupation in Germany, and between those zones themselves.

Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms:

Bulgaria, Hungary, and Romania

On March 16, 1949, Bolivia requested the General Assembly to study the legal proceedings against Josef Cardinal Mindszenty, Roman Catholic Primate of Hungary. Three days later Australia asked the Assembly to deal with the "observance of fundamental freedoms and human rights in Bulgaria and Hungary, including the question of religious and civil liberty in special relation to recent trials of church leaders."

On April 30 the Assembly adopted a resolution which expressed deep concern at the grave accusations made against the Governments of Bulgaria and Hungary. The Assembly noted that steps had been taken by several states signatories to the peace treaties with Bulgaria and Hungary regarding these accusations, and expressed the hope that measures would be diligently applied, in accordance with the treaties, to ensure respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It decided to retain the question on the agenda of its fourth regular session.

At the fourth session, Australia raised a similar question with regard to Romania. On October 22, 1949, the Assembly recorded its opinion that the refusal of Bulgaria, Hungary, and Romania to co-operate in efforts to examine the grave charges had justified the Assembly's concern.

The Assembly then asked the International Court of Justice for an advisory opinion on four questions relating to the peace treaties.

On the basis of the Court's opinion (*see page 418*), the Assembly

at its fifth session adopted a further resolution, on November 3, 1950, condemning the three Governments for "wilful refusal" to fulfill their obligation to appoint representatives to treaty commissions. The resolution also noted that serious accusations of violations of human rights continued against those Governments and invited member states, particularly parties to the treaties of peace with Bulgaria, Hungary, and Romania, to submit evidence of violations to the Secretary-General for transmittal to members.

Complaint of Aggressive Acts of the United States and its Interference in the Domestic Affairs of other Countries

At the request of the Soviet Union, an item was placed on the agenda of the sixth session of the General Assembly entitled "Complaint of aggressive acts of the United States of America and its interference in the domestic affairs of other countries, as instanced by the appropriation of \$100,000,000 to finance the recruitment of persons and the organization of armed groups in the Soviet Union, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria, Albania, and a number of other democratic countries, as well as outside the territory of those countries."

In January 1952 a Soviet draft resolution condemning the United States Mutual Security Act of 1951 was rejected by the Assembly.

In October, 1952, at the seventh session of the Assembly, a similar complaint was submitted by Czechoslovakia, but its draft resolution was also rejected.

Investigation of Conditions for Free Elections in Germany

France, the United Kingdom, and the United States, acting on a proposal by the German Federal Chancellor, brought to the General Assembly's sixth session a request for the appointment of an impartial international commission to carry out, under United Nations supervision, an investigation in the Federal Republic of Germany, in Berlin, and in the Soviet Zone of Germany, to determine whether existing conditions there made it possible to hold genuinely free elections throughout those areas, which would be a decisive step toward reunification. The representatives of Eastern Germany and of the eastern sector of Berlin stated that the establishment of a commission of investigation would constitute intervention in the domestic affairs of the German people.

On December 20, 1951, the Assembly established a commission to ascertain and report whether "genuinely free and secret elections" throughout those areas were possible. Poland declined to accept membership on the commission on the ground that its establishment was illegal and contrary to the Charter.

On April 30, 1952, the commission submitted a report stating that during a visit to Germany in March, it had concluded, with the Allied High Commission for Germany, the Government of the Federal Republic of Germany, the Inter-Allied *Kommandatura* in Berlin, and the Government of the western sector of Berlin, satisfactory agreements concerning the required election arrangements. The commission, however, had not been able to establish contact with the authorities in the Soviet Zone of Germany and in the eastern sector of Berlin and had thus been unable to make the necessary arrangements with them. The commission regretfully concluded that at that time there was little prospect of its being able to pursue its task, but it would remain at the disposal of the United Nations to implement its mandate whenever it seemed likely that new steps might lead to positive results.

Complaint of Hostile Activities Against Yugoslavia

Yugoslavia complained on November 9, 1951, that for more than three years the Soviet Union had been organizing pressure against it in order to threaten its territorial integrity and national independence. That pressure had been applied both directly and through the Governments of Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, and Romania in actions which violated the generally accepted principles regarding relations among nations.

The Assembly, on December 14, adopted a Yugoslav draft resolution recommending that Yugoslavia and the seven other states conduct their relations and settle their disputes in accordance with the spirit of the Charter, conform in their diplomatic intercourse with the rules and practices customary in international relations, and settle frontier disputes by means of mixed frontier commissions or other peaceful means of their choice.

Austrian Peace Treaty

The question of an appeal to the signatories to the Moscow Declaration of November 1, 1943, for an early fulfillment of their pledges toward Austria was taken up by the General Assembly at its seventh session at the request of Brazil; Brazil, together with Lebanon, Mexico, and the Netherlands, submitted a draft resolution which the Assembly adopted on December 20, 1952.

In this, the Assembly earnestly appealed to France, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, and the United States—the Governments concerned—to make a renewed and urgent effort to reach agreement on the terms of an Austrian treaty so that the occupation might soon be terminated and Austria might fully exercise the powers inherent in its sovereignty.

The Byelorussian SSR, Czechoslovakia, Poland, the Ukrainian SSR, and the USSR did not participate in Assembly consideration of the item on the contention that the Assembly, according to Article 107 of the Charter, was not legally entitled even to consider the subject. (Article 107 states: "Nothing in the present Charter shall invalidate or preclude action, in relation to any state which during the Second World War has been an enemy of any signatory to the present Charter, taken or authorized as a result of that war by the Governments having responsibility for such action.")

An Austrian State Treaty restoring Austria's independence was signed in Vienna on May 15, 1955, by representatives of Austria, France, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

The Hungarian Question

CONSIDERATION BY THE SECURITY COUNCIL

On October 27, 1956, France, the United Kingdom, and the United States requested the Security Council to consider the situation in Hungary pursuant to Article 34 of the Charter, in connection with the events which occurred in that country on October 22 and the ensuing days. The three countries stated that foreign military forces in Hungary were violently repressing the rights of the Hungarian people, which were secured by the treaty of peace to which Hungary and the Allied and Associated Powers were parties.

On October 28 the representative of the Hungarian People's Republic protested against consideration by the Council of the situation in Hungary. The events in Hungary, he stated, were exclusively within the country's domestic jurisdiction.

The Soviet representative maintained that discussion by the Council would amount to gross interference in the domestic affairs of Hungary and contravention of the Charter and would encourage the armed rebellion being conducted by a reactionary underground movement against the legal government.

On November 1 Imre Nagy, President of the Council of Ministers of the Hungarian People's Republic, informed the Secretary-General that new Soviet troops were entering Hungary and that he was demanding their withdrawal.

On November 2 Mr. Nagy asked the Security Council to instruct the Soviet and Hungarian Governments to start negotiations for the withdrawal of Soviet troops from Hungary, the termination of the Warsaw Treaty, and the recognition of Hungary's neutrality.

A United States draft resolution submitted on November 3 and later revised, called upon the Soviet Union not to introduce additional armed forces into Hungary and to withdraw without delay all its forces from that country. It was not adopted because of the negative vote of the Soviet Union.

The United States then submitted another draft resolution, which the Council adopted by 10 votes to 1, calling an emergency special session of the General Assembly—as provided for by its “Uniting for Peace” resolution of 1950—to consider the situation in Hungary.

ACTION BY THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY

AT ITS SECOND EMERGENCY SPECIAL SESSION

The emergency special session of the General Assembly met from November 4 to 10, 1956.

The Soviet representative opposed the inclusion of the item in the agenda on the ground that discussion of it was barred by the Charter. The new Hungarian Government, headed by Janos Kadar, had informed the Secretary-General that all communications from Mr. Nagy were invalid and had reiterated the Hungarian Government's objections to discussion of the situation in the United Nations.

The Assembly, after discussion on November 4, adopted a resolution calling upon the Soviet Union to withdraw all its forces from Hungary without delay. It further affirmed the right of the Hungarian people to a government responsive to its national aspirations, and requested the Secretary-General to investigate the situation caused by foreign intervention in Hungary, to observe the situation directly through representatives named by him, to report thereon to the Assembly, and to suggest methods of bringing to an end foreign intervention in Hungary in accordance with the Charter. The Assembly then called upon the Governments of Hungary and the Soviet Union to permit United Nations observers to enter the territory of Hungary and requested the Secretary-General to inquire into the needs of the Hungarian people for food, medicine, and similar supplies. In the meantime, the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees was working with welfare agencies to provide these supplies.

On November 9 the General Assembly adopted three further resolutions, calling again upon the Soviet Union to withdraw its forces from Hungary without further delay and dealing with the humanitarian aspects of the question and assistance to refugees from Hungary.

STEPS TAKEN BY THE SECRETARY-GENERAL

IN IMPLEMENTATION OF ASSEMBLY RESOLUTIONS

On November 10 the Secretary-General sent an *aide-mémoire* to the Government of Hungary, proposing discussion of his earlier request for the admission of United Nations observers to Hungary and also requesting information concerning the needs of the people.

Two days later, the Acting Minister for Foreign Affairs in the Revolutionary Workers' and Peasants' Government of the People's

Republic of Hungary informed the Secretary-General that law and order were being restored and that the Hungarian and Soviet Governments considered themselves to be exclusively competent to negotiate the withdrawal of Soviet troops. Any General Assembly resolution concerning the Hungarian situation was contrary to Article 2, paragraph 7, of the Charter, and the sending of representatives appointed by the Secretary-General was not warranted. As for the relief assistance to its people, the Hungarian Government was thankful and would facilitate the receipt and distribution of any food and medicine sent.

**ACTION BY THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY
AT ITS ELEVENTH SESSION**

The General Assembly on November 13 decided to include the question in the agenda of its eleventh session, which had been convened the day before.

On November 21 the Assembly adopted a resolution which, in part, urged that the Soviet Government and the Hungarian authorities take immediate steps to cease the deportation of Hungarian citizens.

Another resolution urged Hungary, in compliance with the Assembly's resolution of November 4, to accede to the request made by the Secretary-General concerning the admission of United Nations observers to its territory.

A third resolution urged governments and non-governmental organizations to make contributions to the Secretary-General, to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, or to other appropriate agencies for the care and resettlement of Hungarian refugees.

On December 4 the General Assembly adopted a resolution noting with concern that the Soviet Government had failed to comply with the United Nations resolutions concerning the situation in Hungary and reiterating its call upon that Government and the Hungarian authorities to comply with the above resolutions and to permit United Nations observers to enter Hungary, to travel freely therein, and to report their findings to the Secretary-General.

On December 12 the Assembly adopted a resolution in which it declared that by using its armed force against the Hungarian people the Soviet Government was violating the political independence of Hungary; condemned the violation of the Charter by the Soviet Government in depriving Hungary of its liberty and independence and the Hungarian people of the exercise of their fundamental rights; reiterated its call upon the Soviet Government to desist forthwith from any form of intervention in the internal affairs of Hungary; called upon that Government to make immediate arrangements for the withdrawal, under United Nations observation, of its armed

forces from Hungary; and requested the Secretary-General to take any initiative that he deemed helpful in relation to the Hungarian problem, in conformity with the principles of the Charter and the resolutions of the General Assembly.

On January 10, 1957, the Assembly adopted another resolution establishing a United Nations Special Committee on the Problem of Hungary which was to maintain direct observation in Hungary and elsewhere, taking testimony, collecting evidence, and receiving information, as appropriate, in order to report its findings to the General Assembly at its current session and thereafter.

The Special Committee submitted its report when the Assembly resumed its eleventh session on September 10, 1957. Among its conclusions were the following: what had taken place in Hungary in October and November 1956 was a spontaneous national uprising; the uprising, far from having been fomented by reactionary circles in Hungary, had been led by students, workers, soldiers, and intellectuals; the uprising had not been planned in advance but had started as a peaceable demonstration which was transformed into an armed uprising when the AVH (political police) opened fire on the people; and in the light of the extent of foreign intervention, consideration of the Hungarian question by the United Nations had been legally proper and, moreover, had been requested by a legal Government of Hungary.

The General Assembly on September 14 adopted a resolution whereby, *inter alia*, it endorsed the report of the Special Committee and requested the President of the eleventh session of the Assembly—Prince Wan Waithayakon, of Thailand—as the Assembly's Special Representative on the Hungarian Problem, to take such steps as he deemed appropriate to achieve the objectives of the United Nations in accordance with Assembly resolutions on the Hungarian question.

FURTHER CONSIDERATION BY THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY

During its thirteenth session the Assembly considered the report, dated December 9, 1958, of the Special Representative of the Assembly and the supplementary report of the Special Committee, dated July 14, 1958. In the former, the Special Representative stated that he had been unable to find an opportunity for negotiations. In the latter, the Special Committee expressed the hope that the Hungarian Government would cease carrying out the death sentences of the participants in the 1956 uprising and would effectively re-establish the inalienable principles of human rights.

On December 12, 1958, the General Assembly adopted a resolution endorsing the supplementary report of the Special Committee and decided to appoint Sir Leslie Munro, of New Zealand, to represent the United Nations for the purpose of reporting to member states

or to the General Assembly on significant developments relating to the implementation of the Assembly resolutions on Hungary.

"The question of Hungary" was included in the agenda of the fourteenth session of the General Assembly in 1959 upon the request of the United Nations Special Representative, Sir Leslie Munro. He declared that there was no hope that the governments concerned would cooperate in order to achieve the objectives stated in the Assembly's resolutions on the subject, and that while the Hungarian authorities persisted in their refusal to assent to any visit by him to Hungary, the continuing trials and executions in that country had aroused widespread concern. Hungary, the Soviet Union, and certain other countries objected to consideration of this question by the Assembly.

Nevertheless, the Assembly passed a resolution on December 9, 1959, which deplored the attitude of the Soviet Union and Hungary, called upon them to cooperate with the United Nations Special Representative, and asked the Special Representative to continue his efforts.

The Hungarian question appeared again on the agenda on the fifteenth session of the Assembly, which heard Sir Leslie Munro's report about his unsuccessful efforts to induce the Soviet Union and Hungary to cooperate. Hungary repeated its objections against consideration of this subject by the Assembly and declared that the report of the Special Representative did not deal with any matter that fell within the competence of any international organization. The Assembly did not discuss the item during the session.

At its sixteenth session the Assembly, after considering another report of the Special Representative about the failure to implement the Assembly resolutions, adopted a resolution on December 20, 1961, deploring "the continued disregard" by the Soviet Union and Hungary of those resolutions.

At its seventeenth session in 1962 the Assembly once again took up the question of Hungary. The United States, which had requested inclusion of the item in the agenda, stated in an explanatory memorandum that since the events in Hungary in 1956, the Governments of Hungary and the Soviet Union had failed to cooperate with the United Nations and had not taken any satisfactory steps that would enable the Organization to progress toward its fundamental objectives of ameliorating the situation of the Hungarian people and resolving the long-standing issue in the United Nations.

On September 25, the fourth report of the Special Representative was submitted to the Assembly. In it Sir Leslie Munro recalled that basically the resolutions adopted by the Assembly had been directed toward three objectives: withdrawal of Soviet forces from Hungary; free elections in Hungary under United Nations auspices; and observance by the Hungarian authorities of fundamental human rights and freedoms. "None of the resolutions has been complied with," he

stated. In addition, he said that during the last year petitions drawing attention to the Assembly resolutions on Hungary and requesting that efforts be continued to secure their observance had continued to be received from numerous countries throughout the world, bearing testimony to the universal concern with the proceedings of the United Nations on the question of Hungary.

The Assembly on December 20 adopted a resolution which requested the Secretary-General "to take any initiative he deems helpful in relation to the Hungarian question," and discontinued the position of the United Nations Special Representative on the Question of Hungary, after expressing appreciation to him for his efforts in discharging his responsibilities.

HUMANITARIAN ASSISTANCE TO THE HUNGARIAN PEOPLE

The General Assembly in its resolution on Hungary of November 4, 1956, asked the Secretary-General to inquire into the needs of the Hungarian people for food, medicine, and other supplies. In addition, all member states were requested, and international and national humanitarian organizations were invited, to cooperate in supplying urgent relief to the Hungarian people.

As a result of negotiations initiated with the International Committee of the Red Cross in November 1956, the Committee was to be the sole agency to carry out the relief program on behalf of the United Nations with contributions made pursuant to the appeals of the General Assembly. Relief needs were evaluated by requesting information from Hungarian authorities and through a joint United Nations—Food and Agriculture Organization mission which visited Hungary early in January 1957.

The international response to United Nations appeals included governmental and non-governmental contributions in cash and kind.

In regard to the problem of refugees from Hungary, the General Assembly authorized the Secretary-General and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees to make joint appeals to governments and non-governmental organizations for assistance to Hungarian refugees. The total influx of Hungarian refugees into Austria and Yugoslavia was about 200,000.

Complaint by the USSR of Intervention by the United States in the Domestic Affairs of Certain States

On December 14, 1956, this complaint was included in the agenda of the eleventh session of the General Assembly. During the discussion in the Assembly's Special Political Committee, the USSR, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, Albania, the Ukrainian SSR, Romania, the Byelo-

russian SSR, and Poland detailed various aspects of alleged hostile activity by the United States in their countries.

The United States rejected the allegations, stating that the Soviet Union, in its complaint, was endeavoring to divert world attention from its own attempts to undermine the governments of free countries all over the world, and particularly from its intervention in the domestic affairs of Hungary.

A draft resolution submitted by the Soviet Union on the subject was not adopted.

USSR Complaint against Flights

by United States Military Aircraft Armed with Atomic and Hydrogen Bombs in the Direction of the USSR Frontiers

The Soviet Union requested, on April 18, 1958, an urgent meeting of the Security Council to consider this complaint. The Council met five times in April and May.

On April 21 the Soviet representative introduced a draft resolution which would have had the Council—considering that such flights increased international tension, constituted a threat to security, and might lead to a breach of world peace and the unleashing of an atomic war—call upon the United States to refrain from sending its military aircraft toward the frontiers of other states for the purpose of creating a threat to their security or staging military demonstrations.

The United States, rejecting the Soviet charges, stated that it was merely complying with the inescapable requirements of legitimate self-defense and guarding against the possibility of a surprise attack. The routes and procedures followed by the flights of the Strategic Air Command were not provocative and could not be the accidental causes of war.

After rejection by the Council of two Soviet motions to adjourn the debate until the next day, the Soviet Union withdrew its draft resolution in protest against the procedure followed.

On April 29, the United States submitted a draft resolution which, *inter alia*, would have had the Security Council recommend the prompt establishment of the northern zone of international inspection against surprise attack that had been considered by the United Nations Disarmament Sub-Committee in August 1957, and call upon all states with territory north of the Arctic Circle, which desired to have such territory included in the international inspection zone, to participate in immediate discussions on the technical arrangements required.

On the same day the Soviet Union submitted a second draft resolution, identical with that previously withdrawn except for an additional final paragraph which would have had the Council first, note with satisfaction that preliminary talks were in progress between the interested states on the convening of a summit conference to dis-

cuss a number of urgent problems, including measures to preclude the danger of surprise attack, and second, express the hope that the summit conference would be held at the earliest possible date.

On May 2, the United States incorporated in its draft resolution a Swedish amendment under which the Council would have expressed the view that such discussions might serve as a useful basis for deliberation on the disarmament problem at the summit conference. However, the United States, with the agreement of the Swedish representative, changed the words "the summit conference" to "a summit conference."

On the same day, the Council voted on the draft resolutions. The United States draft was not adopted as a result of a negative vote cast by the USSR. The Soviet draft resolution was thereafter rejected by 9 votes to 1 (USSR), with 1 abstention (Sweden).

Security Council Meetings on United States Flights over the Territory of Other States

In May 1960 the Security Council considered another Soviet complaint about the flight of United States aircraft over Soviet territory (the U-2 incident). The Council adopted a resolution recommending that international problems be settled by negotiations; that governments refrain from threats to peace; and that governments concerned pursue their efforts toward a solution of the problem of general and complete disarmament and of the problem of the prevention of surprise attack.

Status of the German-Speaking Element in the Province of Bolzano (Bozen)

"The status of the German-speaking element in the Province of Bolzano (Bozen)," was included in the agenda of the fifteenth session of the General Assembly upon the request of Austria, and in implementation of the Paris Agreement of September 5, 1946. Austria contended that the Paris Agreement, signed by Austria and Italy in 1946 and providing for legislative and executive autonomy for the South Tyrolean population, had been interpreted and applied by Italy in a way that contradicted its purpose in essential respects. The Assembly was asked to consider the dispute in order to bring about a just settlement based on democratic principles.

On October 31, 1960, the Assembly adopted a resolution recommending that the two parties concerned resume negotiations on the matter. If these negotiations did not lead to satisfactory results within a reasonable period of time, both parties were to consider a solution "by any of the means provided in the Charter, including recourse to

the International Court of Justice or any peaceful means of their own choice."

At its sixteenth session the Assembly, on November 28, 1961, noting that the dispute remained unsolved although the negotiations were in progress, called for "further efforts by the two parties concerned to find a solution" in accordance with the terms of the 1960 resolution.

Questions Relating to the Western Hemisphere

Complaint of Guatemala

On June 19, 1954, the Minister for External Relations of Guatemala requested the President of the Security Council to convene a meeting urgently in order that the Council might take the measures necessary to prevent the disruption of peace and international security in Central America and also to put a stop to the aggression in progress against Guatemala. Expeditionary forces had advanced about fifteen kilometers inside Guatemalan territory, he said, and on June 19, aircraft flying from the direction of Honduras had dropped bombs on the port of San José and attacked Guatemala City.

When the Council met, Brazil and Colombia proposed that the Security Council refer the complaint of Guatemala to the Organization of American States (OAS). France proposed that a final paragraph be added to the joint draft resolution whereby the Council, without prejudice to such measures as OAS might take, would, *inter alia*, call for immediate termination of any action likely to cause further bloodshed. The amendment was accepted by the sponsors of the joint draft resolution, but when the resolution, as modified by France, came to the vote, it was not adopted because of the negative vote of the Soviet Union.

The representative of France then reintroduced his amendment as a separate draft resolution; this was adopted unanimously.

At the request of Guatemala and the Soviet Union, the Council met again on June 25. The provisional agenda read: "Cablegram dated June 19, 1954, from the Minister for External Relations of Guatemala addressed to the President of the Security Council and letter dated June 22, 1954, from the representative of Guatemala addressed to the Secretary-General." After a discussion on a question of procedure, the agenda was not adopted because of lack of a majority.

On July 9 the Minister for External Relations of Guatemala, in a cablegram to the President of the Security Council, stated that "the occurrences that prompted the previous Government to appeal to the Security Council in the communication of June 19 and subsequent

correspondence" had ceased and that peace and order had been restored.

Communications Regarding Latin America

CONCERNING NICARAGUA

On July 30, 1959, the Secretary-General of the Organization of American States (OAS) informed the United Nations Secretary-General that the Council of OAS had decided, by a resolution adopted on July 28, to cancel a consultative meeting of Foreign Ministers planned in connection with a complaint by Nicaragua that its territory had been invaded by rebellious elements coming from abroad. After the submission of a report by its fact-finding committee, the Council also decided to terminate its own provisional functions as an organ of consultation in the case.

CONCERNING PANAMA

By letters dated May 2 and 14, 1959, the Assistant Secretary-General of OAS informed the United Nations Secretary-General of decisions taken by the OAS Council, acting as provisional organ of consultation, in relation to a request submitted by the Government of Panama for assistance in repelling an invasion which affected the territorial integrity of Panama and threatened hemispheric security. The measures adopted by the OAS Council included the appointment of an investigating committee, which reported to the Council on the situation.

CONCERNING THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

On January 8, 1962, the Secretary-General of OAS transmitted to the Security Council the text of a resolution adopted on January 4, whereby the Council of OAS, having considered that the Government of the Dominican Republic was no longer a danger to the peace and security of the hemisphere, resolved to cancel the measures of suspension of trade which had been agreed upon by the Sixth Meeting of Consultation of Ministers of Foreign Affairs as well as those agreed upon by the OAS Council in its resolution of January 4, 1961.

COMMUNICATION FROM OAS

ON THE MEETING AT PUNTA DEL ESTE

On January 31, 1962, the Secretary-General of OAS transmitted to the Secretary-General of the United Nations the Final Act of the Eighth Meeting of Consultation of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, held at Punta del Este, Uruguay, between January 22 to 31. The meeting had been convened at the request of Colombia

to consider, among other things, threats to the peace and political independence of the American States that might arise from the intervention of extra-continental powers.

**Complaints by Cuba
against the United States and Other Countries**

CONSIDERATION BY THE SECURITY COUNCIL

On July 18, 1960, the Security Council met to consider a complaint by Cuba against the United States. Cuba charged that a grave situation endangering international peace and security had arisen as a result of repeated threats, reprisals, and aggressive acts by the United States against Cuba. Specifically, Cuba accused the United States of having offered protection to Cuban war criminals and of having provided facilities to counter-revolutionary elements, and stated that aircraft proceeding from the United States had violated Cuban air space and that economic strangulation had been carried out by the United States.

The United States transmitted to the Security Council a memorandum which it had submitted to the Inter-American Peace Committee of the Organization of American States (OAS) accusing Cuba of having for many months conducted an intense and systematic campaign of distortions, half-truths, and outright falsehoods against the United States.

On July 19, the Security Council, in a resolution noting that the situation was under consideration by OAS, decided, *inter alia*, to adjourn the consideration of the question pending the receipt of a report from OAS and invited the members of OAS to lend their assistance toward the achievement of a peaceful solution of the situation in accordance with the purposes and principles of the United Nations Charter.

On August 29, the Secretary-General of OAS transmitted to the Security Council the text of the Final Act of the Meeting of the Committee of Consultation of Ministers of Foreign Affairs. The Final Act contained a resolution which created an *ad hoc* Committee of Good Offices to facilitate the settlement of controversies between American Governments and to report to the Council of OAS. Another resolution, embodied in the Final Act as the "Declaration of San José," condemned intervention or the threat of intervention from an extra-continental power in the affairs of the American Republics. It singled out what it called the attempt of the Sino-Soviet powers to destroy hemispheric unity, and it reaffirmed the principle of non-intervention by any American state in the internal or external affairs of the other American states. In addition it proclaimed that all members of OAS were "under obligation to submit to the discipline of the inter-American system."

On November 7, the Secretary-General of OAS informed the Security Council of the forthcoming meeting of the Committee of Good Offices which would seek to clarify the facts relating to the Cuba-United States controversy, but Cuba, in a letter to the United Nations Secretary-General dated November 26, held that the Committee of Good Offices had no legal or factual basis and that the information received from the Secretary-General of OAS could not be regarded as constituting the report from OAS requested by the Council resolution of July 19.

On December 31, 1960, Cuba, in a letter to the President of the Security Council, asked for an immediate meeting of the Council to consider what it said was the intention of the United States to commit direct military aggression against Cuba. The Cuban Government said that it had in its possession evidence of a plan for United States armed aggression against Cuba and that in its preparation the United States was exerting pressure to bring about the diplomatic isolation of Cuba from Latin America.

On January 3, 1961, Cuba informed the President of the Council that the United States had severed diplomatic relations with Cuba.

The Council discussed the matter on January 4 and 5, but no decision was adopted. Subsequently, delegations of several Latin American countries sent letters to the President of the Council protesting against references about their countries made by the representative of Cuba.

On July 28, the Security Council was informed of an incident involving a plane belonging to a United States airline, which, when en route from Miami to Tampa, Florida, had had to land unexpectedly at Havana. A legal attachment order was issued by Cuban authorities because of a claim by a Cuban firm against the airline. The United States declared on August 2 that it was pursuing through diplomatic channels its request for the return of the "hijacked" plane.

On November 21, Cuba requested a meeting of the Council to consider its charges that the United States was carrying out a plan of armed intervention in the Dominican Republic in violation of the latter's sovereignty.

The Council discussed the question at three meetings in November, the representatives of Cuba and the Dominican Republic being invited to participate, without the right to vote, in the Council's debate. At the conclusion of the discussion, the President of the Council stated that the item would remain on the Council's agenda for further discussion, if required.

On December 7, Cuba addressed two communications to the President of the Council about events in the Dominican Republic, denouncing continued intervention by the United States in the Dominican Republic as a threat to the peace in the Caribbean area.

On February 27, 1962, the Security Council decided not to in-

clude in its agenda a Cuban complaint that the United States had promoted enforcement action against Cuba through regional organizations in violation of the United Nations Charter, "as a prelude to large-scale invasion" of Cuba. Cuba had charged that the United States had "illegally" obtained enforcement action against Cuba at the meeting in Punta del Este, Uruguay, of the foreign ministers of members of oas, and was attempting to make the North Atlantic Treaty Organization "a party to this enforcement action."

On March 23, the Council rejected a Cuban draft resolution asking it to request an advisory opinion from the International Court of Justice on certain legal questions relating to the decisions taken at the Punta del Este meeting. Among the legal questions were the following: whether oas was a regional agency within the meaning of the United Nations Charter; whether oas had the right to take enforcement action without the authorization of the Security Council; and whether the oas Charter made provision for the expulsion of a member state "particularly because of its social system."

CONSIDERATION BY THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY

The Cuba-United States issue was included in the agenda of the fifteenth session of the General Assembly in 1960 as a result of the Cuban complaint that the United States had intensified its plans for aggression and intervention in the domestic affairs of Cuba.

When the Assembly started to consider the item on April 15, 1961, Cuba charged the United States with a number of acts of aggression, and on April 17 announced the invasion of Cuba by a mercenary force from Guatemala and Florida, organized, financed, and armed by the United States.

The United States representative denied the charge that any attack against Cuba had been launched from any part of the United States and stated that while the United States sympathized with those who opposed the Castro regime, it was opposed to the use of its territory for mounting an offensive against any foreign government.

On April 21, the Assembly adopted a resolution sponsored by seven Latin American countries, which, *inter alia*, referred to the Council's resolution of July 19, 1960 and the procedures adopted at the seventh meeting of the Committee of Consultation of oas, and exhorted all member states to take such peaceful action as was open to them to remove existing tension.

In September 1961, the item "Complaint by Cuba of threats to international peace and security arising from new plans of aggression and acts of intervention being executed by the Government of the United States of America against the Revolutionary Government of Cuba," was inscribed in the agenda of the sixteenth session of the Assembly. But, subsequent to the inscription, further communications

from Cuba were received, containing additional charges of United States intervention in Cuba's internal affairs. Also, in a letter dated October 30 addressed to the President of the General Assembly, Guatemala protested against the allegations made by Cuba of Guatemalan participation in the invasion of Cuba in 1961.

The Assembly did not consider the Cuban complaint until the second part of its sixteenth session in February 1962, and did not comply with Cuban request that it adopt measures to prevent the United States from executing "new plans of aggression and acts of intervention." The Assembly's First Committee, between February 5 and 15, considered a joint draft resolution of Czechoslovakia and Romania, but adjourned without recommending action. Afterwards, the Assembly rejected a Mongolian proposal which would have had it recall, in accordance with the Charter, that a permanent aim of the United Nations was "to develop friendly relations based on respect for the principles of equal rights and self-determination of peoples and non-interference in the internal affairs of any state."

The Critical Situation in the Caribbean

The Security Council met on October 23, 24, and 25 to discuss the critical situation in the Caribbean. It had been asked to do so in separate requests by the United States, Cuba, and the Soviet Union.

The United States wanted the Council to bring about the dismantling and withdrawal, under United Nations observation, of offensive long-range missiles and launching bases which it charged had been secretly established in Cuba by the Soviet Union.

Cuba asked the Council to consider "the act of war unilaterally committed" by the United States in ordering what it called a "naval blockade" and what the United States termed a "quarantine" of Cuba. Cuba charged that this was the culmination of a series of aggressive acts against it by the United States.

The Soviet Union, contending that all weapons sent to Cuba were for defensive purposes, requested the Council to condemn the United States for "violating the Charter" and "increasing the threat of war" and to insist that it revoke its decision to inspect ships bound for Cuba.

Both the United States and the Soviet Union expressed readiness to confer on the situation.

On October 24, Acting Secretary-General U Thant informed the Council that, at the request of a large number of delegations, he had sent identically worded appeals to President Kennedy and Chairman Khrushchev to suspend voluntarily the arms shipments and quarantine measures for a period of two to three weeks and to enter into immediate negotiations for a peaceful solution. He also appealed to Prime Minister Castro to assist in finding a way out of the "impasse"

by halting work on the installations under discussion. U Thant declared himself available to all parties for whatever services he might be able to perform.

The Acting Secretary-General had warned that what was at stake was not just the interests of the parties concerned, or even of all member states, but "the very fate of mankind."

During the course of the Security Council's debate, he received favorable replies from President Kennedy and Chairman Khrushchev, and the Council adjourned on the understanding that future work would be decided in the light of the results of the discussions that were to take place.

On October 30 and 31, U Thant held "fruitful and cordial" talks with Cuban authorities in Havana and reported afterwards that he had been reliably informed that the missiles were being dismantled. There had been agreement, he said, "that the United Nations should continue to participate in the peaceful settlement of the problem."

After his return from Havana, the Secretary-General resumed consultations on the unsettled phases of the Caribbean situation with representatives of the three interested parties.

Early in January 1963 an exchange of correspondence on the Caribbean problem took place between the Secretary-General and the three Governments concerned. The letters in effect marked a concluding phase in the Security Council's consideration of the question "at this time."

A joint letter from the Soviet Union and the United States to the Secretary-General on January 7 noted the appreciation of the two Governments for the Secretary-General's efforts in assisting them "to avert the serious threat to the peace which recently arose." It went on to say that while not all the related problems in the matter had been resolved, the two Governments believed that, "in view of the degree of understanding reached between them on the settlement of the crisis and the extent of progress in the implementation of this understanding, it is not necessary for this item to occupy further the attention of the Security Council at this time."

A letter from Cuba was also delivered to the Secretary-General on January 7. This expressed the view that the negotiations carried out with the Secretary-General's assistance "have not led to an effective agreement capable of guaranteeing, in a permanent way, the peace of the Caribbean and in liquidating existing tensions." The Cuban Government felt that the negotiations had not produced agreements acceptable to Cuba mainly because the United States had not "renounced its aggressive and interventionist policy" and was maintaining the "position of force assumed in flagrant violation of international law."

U Thant, in his reply of January 9, took note of the position of the Cuban Government.

The Question of Boundaries between Venezuela and the Territory of British Guiana

On August 18, 1962, Venezuela requested the inclusion of this item in the agenda of the seventeenth session of the General Assembly. An explanatory memorandum stated, *inter alia*, that an award made in 1899 by an Arbitral Tribunal had not recognized Venezuela's rights even over territories which had not been held by the British for fifty years and that the boundary had been traced in an arbitrary way. The Government of Venezuela had reserved its rights at the Fourth Meeting of Consultation of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Continent in 1951 and at the Tenth Inter-American Conference in 1954. Since then, Venezuela had approached the Government of the United Kingdom with a view to arriving at an amicable solution of the problem before the proclamation of independence of British Guiana in order to avoid future controversy with a newly independent state. Venezuela believed that the Assembly should be informed of the results of those negotiations.

The Special Political Committee considered this item at three meetings in November, at which statements were made by the Foreign Minister of Venezuela, by the representative of the United Kingdom, and others. On November 16, the Chairman of the Committee stated that "in view of the possibility of direct discussions among the parties concerned, we should not proceed further with our debate here." The Committee, therefore, had no recommendation to make to the General Assembly.

ECONOMIC QUESTIONS

World Economic Conditions and Trends

The world economic situation is reviewed every year by the Economic and Social Council, in accordance with a General Assembly recommendation of October 1947. Background information for these discussions is provided by the Secretariat in the form of factual analyses of world economic conditions and trends.

Publication of annual surveys of world economic conditions began with *Economic Report: Salient Features of the World Economic Situation, 1945-47*, published in 1948. Subsequent world economic surveys have contained a section dealing with some long-term problems of general interest, and have been supplemented by special studies of economic developments in various geographic regions, such as *Economic Developments in the Middle East, 1959-1961*. In addition, the Council, as background for its discussion of the world economic situation, has before it economic surveys published annually by the regional economic commissions. On the initiative of the Council,

the Secretary-General began publishing in 1960 *Current Economic Indicators*, a quarterly statistical review of current developments in the world economy.

Discussions in the General Assembly and the Council on the world economic situation give background for action by these organs on various problems in the economic field and have led, on several occasions, to specific recommendations for appropriate action by member governments and the specialized agencies.

At its thirtieth session in mid-1960, the Council held meetings at the ministerial level to discuss the world economic situation and the economic development of the less developed countries.

In mid-1962 the Council received the latest *World Economic Survey*, which contained a review of current economic trends in 1961 and a brief assessment of the prospects for 1962, together with an examination of industrialization in the context of economic development.

In reviewing recent economic changes, the *Survey* noted that, while production in the developed private enterprise economies had generally been higher in 1961 than in 1960, dissimilar trends in activity were evident among regions. Production in North America had risen sharply as the economy had recovered from recession in the early months. In western Europe and Japan, the upswing in economic activity which had begun in the latter part of 1958, had paused in mid-1961, but had thereafter resumed its upward movement at a moderate pace. With the slackening in growth in western Europe and Japan, the pace of expansion of trade in manufactures had declined in 1961.

In the primary exporting countries, the *Survey* showed that balance-of-payments pressure continued to act as a major restraining influence on the pace of economic advance. Although export earnings had risen between 1960 and 1961, the increase had been less than in the preceding interval. Domestic production had generally been higher in 1961, particularly in the agricultural sector. This had helped to support an increase in consumption. Fixed investment had also risen, though generally at a slower rate.

The *Survey* noted that while industrial production had continued to expand at a high rate in all the European centrally-planned economies during 1961, agricultural production had slowed down considerably and in some cases had declined. In mainland China, no significant recovery had been made in 1961 from the substantial fall in agricultural output which had occurred in 1960. The growth of industrial production had also come to a halt in 1961, generally as a result of the agricultural situation.

In assessing the outlook for 1962, the *Survey* noted that production in the industrial countries for the current year was expected to be somewhat greater than in 1961. For the primary exporting coun-

tries, 1962 was expected to be another year of limited growth in export earnings. In the centrally-planned economies, plans for 1962 provided for an acceleration of growth in national income in most countries.

In its examination of industrialization, the *Survey* noted that there was almost universal agreement that industrialization had a major role to play in the economic development of the underdeveloped countries, and that a balanced and diversified industrial structure should be their aim. It observed that rates of growth in industrial output during the last decade had generally been quite encouraging, but that industry still constituted only a minor segment of the economy in most underdeveloped countries. The main limitation on the rate of growth in industrial output had been the volume of productive resources, particularly capital goods, that were available for use in the manufacturing sector. So long as the aim in underdeveloped countries was to raise the level of investment and accelerate the rate of economic growth, a principal criterion underlying the pattern of industrialization must be the net effect of new industries on the prospective supply of capital goods.

In reviewing recent industrial growth in the developed private enterprise economies, the *Survey* observed that, while the average rate of growth in industrial output had been quite high during the nineteen-fifties, there had been considerable variation in experience from one individual country to another. The differences in rates of growth, however, could not be explained in terms of dissimilarities in industrial structures. They reflected, rather, the various rates at which aggregate demand had been expanding.

The *Survey* noted that in the centrally-planned economies, industrial output had increased at high rates in all countries during the last decade. These countries shared a common strategy for economic development in which the expansion of heavy goods industries was given priority. Partly because of the high proportion of resources allocated to industry, rates of growth in agricultural output had by contrast been quite low. In the latter part of the decade, however, the shift in policy toward attainment of higher levels of consumption had led to greater emphasis on agricultural development as well as on consumer goods industries. Trade in manufactures, particularly in capital goods, had expanded rapidly during the last decade, a feature of all countries in the group.

Commercial Policies and World Trade

The economic welfare of many countries depends to a large extent on their imports and exports, which are in turn directly affected by prevailing international commercial policies.

Since 1952 both the General Assembly and the Economic and

Social Council have given considerable attention to international trade questions and particularly to the possibility of expanding world trade. The topics considered included: the removal of existing trade obstacles, the development of interregional trade, arrangements for international consideration of trade questions, and restrictive practices affecting international trade.

Conference on Trade and Development

The Economic and Social Council at its 1962 summer session resolved to convene a United Nations Conference on Trade and Development relating particularly to commodity markets. It decided to convene a preparatory committee by early spring 1963.

The Council's resolution recalled earlier Assembly resolutions, particularly that on international trade as the primary instrument for economic development, and referred to the aims of the United Nations Development Decade. It noted the difficulties which hamper international trade, took into account the fact that the developing countries in recent years have suffered from the drop in prices of primary products, and, finally, recognized that measures to impart stability in international commodity markets at remunerative levels are vital for these countries.

In December the General Assembly, at its seventeenth session, endorsed the Council's action, and asked it to convene the first session of the Preparatory Committee by January 1963 so that the preparatory work by the Committee and the Council would be sufficiently well advanced to enable the Council to convene the Conference as soon as possible after July 1963, but in no event later than early 1964.

Restrictive Business Practices

Restrictive business practices by private or public commercial enterprises may restrain competition, foster monopolistic control, and limit access to markets and to the means of production necessary for economic development. The Economic and Social Council recognized these possibilities in a resolution adopted in September 1951 and, accordingly, recommended that member states take measures and co-operate with one another to prevent such practices by public and private enterprises.

The Council established an *ad hoc* Committee on Restrictive Business Practices, which submitted a report on the subject, including an analysis, prepared by the Secretariat, of governmental measures dealing with such practices. The Secretariat also prepared a study for the Council containing the *Texts of National Legislation and Other Governmental Measures Relating to Restrictive Business Practices*. In 1953 the Council requested the Secretary-General to transmit these for examination and comment to United Nations member states,

to the specialized agencies concerned, and to interested governmental and non-governmental organizations.

In 1955 the Council resumed consideration of the *ad hoc* Committee's report on *Restrictive Business Practices* and comments on it received through the Secretary-General. The Secretary-General submitted a report to the Council on *Current Legal Developments*, and a study of ten industries with respect to *Restrictive Business Practices of International Trade*.

That same year the Council adopted a resolution asking the Secretary-General to suggest further consideration of the matter at a later session of the Council and, for this purpose, to continue to summarize information concerning restrictive practices and to prepare a bibliography on the nature of such practices.

International Commodity Problems

INTERIM COORDINATING COMMITTEE

FOR INTERNATIONAL COMMODITY ARRANGEMENTS

To facilitate intergovernmental consultation or action on commodity problems, the Economic and Social Council established in March 1947 an Interim Coordinating Committee for International Commodity Arrangements (ICCICA). As of the end of 1962, this body consisted of a chairman nominated by the Contracting Parties to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT); a member chosen by FAO, who was concerned particularly with agricultural primary commodities; and a member with wide experience in problems confronting countries undergoing development whose economies are primarily dependent on the production and international marketing of primary commodities. The latter member was nominated by the Secretary-General.

In 1954, and again in 1956, the Council reaffirmed that the Interim Coordinating Committee should continue to exercise the functions of convening intergovernmental study groups, of making recommendations to the Secretary-General on convening commodity conferences, and of coordinating the activities of individual commodity study groups and councils. Thus, studies being undertaken by intergovernmental bodies on rubber, cotton, wool, lead, zinc, and a number of other commodities, and intergovernmental agreements on tin, wheat, sugar, and coffee, are related to United Nations economic programs.

The Interim Coordinating Committee prepared, until the establishment of the Commission on International Commodity Trade in 1954, an annual *Review of International Commodity Problems* dealing with their relation to general economic conditions. From 1955 onwards, the *Review* was confined to a discussion of intergovernmental consultation and action, the task of reviewing the commodity

situation having been assigned to the Commission on International Commodity Trade.

CONFERENCES ON COMMODITY PROBLEMS

The Economic and Social Council, in August 1950, authorized the Secretary-General to convene intergovernmental conferences on specific commodity problems. Several such conferences have been convened since that time.

A five-year International Tin Agreement was concluded after two sessions of a United Nations Tin Conference held in 1950 and 1953. It came into force on July 1, 1956. In 1960 another United Nations Tin Conference was held, at which the text of the second International Tin Agreement was approved. This Agreement, also for five years, entered into force on July 1, 1961, upon expiration of the earlier Agreement.

A United Nations Sugar Conference held in 1953 concluded an International Sugar Agreement, which came into effect on January 1, 1954. The five-year agreement was reviewed and revised during the third year of its operation at a second United Nations Sugar Conference; the revised agreement was operative from July 1, 1957, to December 31, 1958. In the latter part of 1958, the Secretary-General convened a third United Nations Sugar Conference, which concluded a further five-year agreement. This agreement entered into force on January 1, 1959. By 1961, the "free market" to which quotas related had greatly altered in structure and size, and re-examination of export quotas and prices was required. Thus, another United Nations Sugar Conference was held in the latter part of that year. The Conference failed to reach an accord on quotas for the years 1962 and 1963, but provided for the convening of a new negotiating conference before the end of 1963.

At the first and second sessions of a United Nations Wheat Conference held in 1955 and 1956, an International Wheat Agreement covering a period of three years was concluded. The Agreement expired on July 31, 1959. A second United Nations Wheat Conference was held in October 1958 and from January to March 1959, and a new three-year International Wheat Agreement was concluded. It entered into force on August 1, 1959. Another United Nations Wheat Conference was held from January 31 to March 10, 1962, and negotiated a new International Wheat Agreement, which entered into force for a period of three years on the expiry of the existing agreement on July 31, 1962. It continues to provide a measure of stability to prices of wheat and flour entering international trade. The Conference also gave attention to the implication for wheat trade of developments in the common agricultural policy of the European Economic Community, and also to the implications of special transactions which

promoted the utilization of excess wheat for the benefit of poorer countries.

An International Agreement on Olive Oil adopted in October 1955 by a United Nations Conference on Olive Oil did not come into force as scheduled in October 1956 because the required number of main producing and importing countries had not yet ratified the agreement. The signatories to the agreement met in 1956 and 1957, and again in 1958 and drew up a protocol making certain procedural amendments to the proposed agreement. The Agreement came into force on June 26, 1959, and will expire on September 30, 1963.

An intergovernmental meeting on cocoa was held in May 1956 to discuss international trade in cocoa. Further intergovernmental consideration of the problem has been continuing under the auspices of FAO, whose Cocoa Study Group has been giving attention to suitable measures, including an international commodity agreement, to stabilize the market.

United Nations exploratory meetings on copper and on lead and zinc were held in London in September 1958. The general opinion was that the copper situation was improving and machinery for further intergovernmental consultation was not necessary. At the Exploratory Meeting on Lead and Zinc it was decided to seek the views of governments on methods of dealing with short-term problems and long-range actions, and to establish a committee to examine these views. The Lead and Zinc Committee submitted its report to a United Nations Conference on Lead and Zinc, held in Geneva in November 1958, where it was decided to continue and expand the Committee, and to set up an intergovernmental study group.

In April and May 1959 a meeting was held to decide on the inauguration of the International Lead and Zinc Study Group; by December, a sufficient number of exporting and importing countries had signified their intention of participating in the Group, and it held its first session in January and February 1960. It established a Standing Committee to keep the lead and zinc situation under review and to carry certain administrative tasks on behalf of the Group. Its second session was held in September 1960. In 1961 the Group met from March 20 to 24 in Mexico City and from October 18 to 24 in Geneva, reviewing the current situation and short-term outlook in regard to supplies and demand for metals.

It held its fifth and sixth sessions in 1962. By the time of the latter session, the statistical position of both metals had improved as a result of voluntary curtailments. The Group plans studies of factors underlying long-term trends in production and consumption of these metals.

During July and August, 1962, representatives of seventy-one coffee-exporting-and-importing countries and interested organizations attended a United Nations Coffee Conference in New York, which ap-

proved a five-year International Coffee Agreement replacing the provisional annual producers agreement. The new agreement, which is expected to enter into force in 1963 when at least twenty countries representing eighty per cent of world exports of coffee and ten countries representing eighty per cent of world imports have ratified it, is designed to increase the purchasing power of coffee-exporting countries by keeping prices at fair levels and increasing world consumption, and is also intended to achieve a reasonable balance between supply and demand by bringing about long-term equilibrium between production and consumption. Quotas have been assigned, dividing the annual global imports estimated at more than 45 million bags, among thirty-six producing nations.

COMMISSION ON INTERNATIONAL COMMODITY TRADE

In 1954 the Economic and Social Council established a subsidiary organ called the Commission on International Commodity Trade. Consisting of eighteen members, its terms of reference were to examine measures designed to avoid excessive fluctuations in the prices and volume of trade in primary commodities and to keep under review the situation in world markets for such commodities. The Commission was also entrusted with certain functions previously exercised by the Interim Coordinating Committee.

The Commission, in performing these tasks, initiated the preparation by the Secretariat of an annual *Commodity Survey* and a periodical memorandum entitled *Recent Commodity Developments*.

In 1958, at its twenty-sixth session, the Council reconstituted the Commission. Its terms of reference were expanded to include the study of movements in the terms of trade and their effect on both the international and domestic economic position of countries participating in international commodity trade, with special attention given to the position of the less developed countries. The Commission was asked to continue to keep the movement of world primary markets under constant review.

In 1959 the Council asked governments, in dealing with the problems of specific commodities, to take into account the views of the governments of interested countries, particularly the less developed countries and countries depending on the exports of primary commodities. In 1960 the Council invited members of the United Nations and of the specialized agencies not represented on the Commission, but having experience in stabilization measures, to participate and send observers to the Commission's sessions.

The General Assembly also, after 1956, paid considerable attention to the problems of international trade in primary commodities and in 1960 passed four resolutions related to this subject. The first recommended, among other things, that member states and international

organs should try to eliminate both excessive fluctuations in primary commodity trade and restrictive practices having unfavorable repercussions on the trade in basic products of the less developed countries and those dependent on the export of a small range of primary products, and try to expand trade in these products. The resolution also stressed that the Economic and Social Council should give "close and serious" attention to the problems of commodity trade and to the recommendations of the Commission designed to deal with them, including those such as compensatory financing.

The second resolution referred, among other things, to the importance of projections of certain major international economic trends, particularly in the field of primary products.

The third resolution asked the Economic and Social Council, *inter alia*, to recommend that the Commission and the regional economic commissions continue to study the causes of, and the obstacles which have resulted in, substantial fluctuations, whether in volume or prices, of exports of the economically less developed countries, as well as ways of improving the existing situation.

The fourth, and last Assembly recommendation asked that the Council and the Commission intensify the study of measures, including in particular multilateral agreements among states, which might be adopted in order to extend and improve markets for the sale of primary commodities which form the basis of the economies of the less developed countries.

In May 1961, during its ninth session, the Commission on International Commodity Trade reviewed developments in international trade in primary commodities, and noted that in the course of 1960 the under-utilization of productive capacity and the accumulation of certain surpluses had become increasingly apparent, underscoring a longer-term problem of imbalance. The Commission devoted particular attention to an examination of the use of compensatory financial measures to offset fluctuations in the export income of primary producing countries, basing its discussion mainly on the report *International Compensation for Fluctuations in Commodity Trade*, prepared by a group of experts appointed by the Secretary-General. In anticipation of an intensive consideration of compensatory financing at its tenth session to be held in 1962, the Commission requested the Secretary-General to prepare a study on a number of matters relating to compensatory financing.

In August the Economic and Social Council adopted a resolution, after having devoted considerable attention to compensatory financing, which expressed the view that the report on *International Compensation for Fluctuations in Commodity Trade* formed a useful basis for the consideration of the issues involved in this question.

A year later, in August 1962, the Economic and Social Council endorsed the Commission's work program, as defined at its tenth

session in May. The Commission had concluded that the average price of primary commodities moving in international trade had declined for the fourth successive year in 1961 and that the terms of trade of primary producing countries had declined to their lowest level since 1950. The view was reaffirmed that the long-term problem should be approached by action on the part of both industrial and primary producing countries. Thus, in addition to deciding to set up a technical working group to study in detail systems of compensatory financing for the offsetting of fluctuations in the export earnings of primary producing countries, the Commission also decided to ask the group to consider measures needed to remedy the unsatisfactory long-term trend in commodity earnings of primary exporting countries.

The Council also took note of the joint session of the Commission and the FAO Committee on Commodity Problems, held from May 7 to 14, 1962, where problems arising in connection with the study of long-term projections of supplies of and demand for agricultural and non-agricultural commodities had been considered. Attention had also been given to the role of national marketing boards and the stabilization funds, particularly in less developed areas, and to the possibility of using international compensatory financing in connection with fluctuations in prices of individual primary commodities. The Council asked the Secretary-General and the Director General of FAO to continue their work on projections of the prospective production of, and demand for, primary commodities.

In December 1962 the General Assembly, at its seventeenth session, approved the establishment of the technical working group on compensatory financing and asked that the report of the group be sent to the Economic and Social Council for transmission to the Preparatory Committee on the Conference on Trade and Development (*see page 183*). In addition, the Assembly urged the Commission and the Council to accelerate the study of the long-term trade problems of countries producing primary commodities, especially measures aimed at the long-term stabilization of prices. This would also be done with a view to facilitating the work of the Preparatory Committee.

International Cooperation for Economic Development

Long-Term Economic Projections, Proposal for Declaration on International Economic Cooperation

On several occasions in the years 1957 through 1961, the General Assembly and the Council considered the desirability of formulating a statement of the economic objectives of the United Nations and the principles of international cooperation best suited to promote them. During these years the Secretary-General prepared a report on international cooperation in the economic development of the under-

developed countries; a compendium of resolutions adopted by the General Assembly and the Council embodying various principles of international cooperation; another compendium of comments by member governments on the desirability of formulating a statement of the economic objectives of the United Nations; and an analytical summary, prepared in 1959, of various means suggested to accelerate through international action economic growth in the less developed countries.

At its fourteenth session in 1959 the General Assembly adopted a resolution reaffirming the Charter principle that a prime duty of the United Nations was to accelerate the economic and social development of the less developed countries. The resolution also made various specific recommendations with regard to commodity trade problems, to technical assistance, and to an increase in development capital, and urged respect for the sovereign right of every state to dispose of its wealth and natural resources.

Also in 1959 the Assembly addressed itself to the question of international cooperation on behalf of newly-independent countries. It invited the Economic and Social Council to study the question of international assistance to the former trust territories which have become independent and asked the Secretary-General and the specialized agencies to intensify their activities in providing assistance to them.

In 1960 both the Council and the General Assembly adopted resolutions stressing the need for prompt and effective assistance to emerging countries and took steps designed to increase technical assistance to them and to help strengthen and consolidate their economic independence.

Also in 1960, at the Assembly's fifteenth session, the Soviet Union submitted a draft "Declaration on International Economic Cooperation." This draft declaration was considered by the Council in April 1961, and a resolution adopted in which the Secretary-General was asked, among other things, to transmit to governments the draft declaration and to put the replies of governments, incorporating their general views on the declaration, before the Council for consideration in early 1962.

In 1961 the Assembly called for more specific measures than in previous years for the promotion of the economic development of the less developed countries. It invited governments to submit requests to the Special Fund for assistance in establishing economic development and planning institutes which would be closely linked to the regional economic commissions, and asked the Secretary-General to establish an Economic Projections and Programing Center, with sub-centers as appropriate, in the regional commissions or institutes of economic development and planning. It also asked the Secretary-

General to prepare long-term projections of world economic trends, and studies of planning techniques under various economic and social systems which would be helpful to the proposed institutes.

At this same session, its sixteenth, the Assembly discussed a program for international economic cooperation designated as the United Nations Development Decade (*see page 196*).

In the spring of 1962 the Economic and Social Council took up again the question of the declaration on international economic cooperation, decided to set up a working group of twelve members to study the draft declaration, and asked the group to report to the Council in early 1963.

Financing of Economic Development and International Flow of Private Capital

Financing the economic development of less developed countries has been the subject of many years' discussion and study in the General Assembly, the Economic and Social Council, and other United Nations bodies dealing with economic questions.

Deliberations in the earlier years of the United Nations were concerned mostly with general issues, such as the inadequacy of funds available in underdeveloped countries for economic development; the role of financing in the process of economic growth; the methods to be used in mobilizing domestic, foreign, and international capital for economic development; and the role of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development in helping to speed the advancement of underdeveloped economies.

Following agreement on questions of general principle, the various United Nations bodies concerned themselves increasingly with specific aspects of the problem of financing economic development, especially that of accelerating the flow of both private and public capital to underdeveloped areas for development purposes. Four possible methods for stimulating this flow were considered: (1) the establishment of an international finance corporation to facilitate the financing of productive private enterprise; (2) the establishment of a Special United Nations Fund for Economic Development, originally conceived as a means to provide grants-in-aid and low-interest, long-term loans; (3) the stimulation of the international flow of private capital; and (4) the improvement, stabilization, and better utilization of the exports proceeds of underdeveloped countries.

In 1957 the Economic and Social Council decided that information on international economic assistance should be submitted to it periodically by the Secretary-General, and that governments and appropriate international organizations should cooperate in providing information. The last in a series of such periodic reports were issued

in 1962 under the titles *The Capital Development Needs of Less Developed Countries*, and *The International Flow of Long-Term Capital and Official Donations, 1951-59*.

In 1960 the General Assembly recommended that member states encourage, on a bilateral or multilateral basis, long-term loans, grants, or credits on favorable terms; avoid restricting financial aid to particular sources of supply or exclusively to particular projects and make the related supply of goods and services available at competitive world prices; and take into account the development needs of the less developed countries, including the acceleration of industrialization and diversification of their economies.

Also in 1960, the Assembly expressed the hope that the flow of international assistance and capital to the less developed countries would be substantially increased so as to reach as soon as possible one per cent of the combined national incomes of the economically advanced countries. It further urged that an appropriate part of international assistance and technical aid be channelled through the United Nations and the specialized agencies, and in such a manner as not to bear heavily on the future balance of payments of the less developed countries.

During 1961 measures for financing the economic development of less developed countries were the subject of several decisions in both the Economic and Social Council and the General Assembly. The Council, after considering two reports by the Secretary-General concerning the international flow of private capital, passed a resolution asking the Secretary-General to continue his studies on this subject, and on the progress made on proposals to encourage the flow of private capital.

At its sixteenth session, the Assembly repeated its hope regarding the increase in the flow of international assistance and capital so as to reach as soon as possible one per cent of the combined national incomes of the economically advanced countries. The Assembly also passed a resolution concerning a United Nations Capital Development Fund (*see page 193*).

In 1962 the Council, prompted by the belief that "the flow of international capital and assistance has not been commensurate with the magnitude, diversity and urgency of the process of development," passed a resolution requesting the Secretary-General to review, in his periodic reports on the flow of capital and assistance, the position in regard to flows of long-term development capital to the developing countries. He was asked to report to the Council in 1963.

The Council also attached great importance to the task of promoting the international flow of private capital. At its session in mid-1962, after considering a report by the Secretary-General on the promotion of the international flow of private capital, it reaffirmed the need for increased knowledge and better understanding of the

opportunity for international private investment in less developed countries and requested the Secretary-General to continue his study on economic, legal, and administrative means for promoting the flow of private capital to these countries and to present his next report on this subject in 1964.

Special attention is being given by the Secretariat to the expanding role of national and international financial institutions in mobilizing foreign private capital for infrastructure projects and for investment in other—mostly industrial—ventures in less developed countries. A preliminary report entitled *Provision of Credits for the Financing of Imports of Machinery and Equipment into Developing Countries* was prepared in 1962 for submission to the May 1963 meeting of the Committee for Industrial Development.

CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT FUND

At its fifteenth session, the General Assembly decided in principle that a United Nations Capital Development Fund should be established and resolved that a committee of twenty-five member states should consider concrete preparatory measures, including draft legislation, necessary for this purpose and report to the Economic and Social Council at its mid-1961 session.

The Committee on a United Nations Capital Development Fund met in May and June 1961, but being handicapped by lack of time, did not prepare detailed legislation. It concentrated, instead, on preliminary measures and, in particular, on the formulation of general principles applicable to any international financing institution. These principles dealt with the objectives of international assistance, the way in which such assistance would be rendered and how they would be obtained and, finally, the question of coordinating the activities of the several institutions in this field. Agreement was reached on a set of twelve principles which would govern the establishment and operations of such a fund. The Committee also agreed that the Secretary-General should be asked to prepare a report on the capital development needs of the less developed countries which would evaluate the effectiveness of existing arrangements and institutions and would define the fields in which additional international effort was still required.

The Council considered the question in mid-1961; the discussion showed that there had been no important change in the positions previously taken by governments with regard to a fund. The Committee's report was transmitted to the Assembly's sixteenth session.

On December 19, 1961 the Assembly adopted a resolution extending the Committee for another year and giving it clear instructions to prepare draft legislation for the new fund.

The Council considered at its summer session in 1962 a draft statute which had been approved in June by a majority of the Com-

mittee. The statute stated that the purpose of the fund "shall be to assist underdeveloped countries in the development of their economies by supplementing existing resources of capital assistance by means of grants and loans, long-term loans made free of interest or at low interest rates." The financial resources of the fund would be derived from voluntary contributions by participating states, and participation in the fund would be open to any member of the United Nations, of the specialized agencies, and of the International Atomic Energy Agency, or "to any state which accepts the statute and which is admitted to participation by the General Conference of the fund." The statute also provided that the fund would be administered under the supervision of the Council and the authority of the Assembly, and would have three organs: a general conference, an executive board, and a managing director and his staff.

The Council transmitted the draft statute and the Committee's 1962 report to the Assembly at its seventeenth session, together with a resolution which urged the economically advanced countries to reconsider, in consultation with the Secretary-General, possibilities of undertaking measures designed to ensure the establishment of a capital development fund.

The Assembly at its seventeenth session endorsed the Council's appeal to the economically advanced countries, and instructed the Committee on a Capital Development Fund to propose practical measures to ensure the beginning of the Fund's operations.

Economic and Social Consequences of Disarmament

In response to a request of the General Assembly at its fifteenth session, a report on the *Economic and Social Consequences of Disarmament* was submitted by the Secretary-General to the Economic and Social Council in mid-1962.

The report was prepared by a group of expert consultants consisting of ten members drawn from countries with different economic systems and in different stages of economic development. The consultative group reached the conclusion that "the achievement of general and complete disarmament would be an unqualified blessing to all mankind;" that the improvement of world economic and social conditions that disarmament would make possible could be achieved without raising any insoluble problems of transition; and, that "all the problems and difficulties of transition connected with disarmament could be met by appropriate national and international measures."

In reviewing the resources devoted to military purposes, the experts found that world military expenditure constituted not only a grave political danger but also a heavy economic and social burden on most countries. They noted that it was generally agreed that

currently the world was spending roughly \$120 thousand million annually on military account, corresponding to about one-half of the total gross capital formation throughout the world or to two-thirds of—or perhaps the whole of—the entire national income of all the underdeveloped countries.

In a resolution on the subject, the Council, besides endorsing the consultative group's report and appealing to all states to take the findings of the report into consideration, urged United Nations members, particularly those involved in current military programs, to devote further attention to the detailed aspects of the economic and social consequences of disarmament. The Council asked the Secretary-General to report to it, in 1963, on any studies on this subject that member states had made. The Secretary-General was also requested to transmit the consultative group's report, together with the comments made in the Council, to the Assembly at its seventeenth session, and to submit it to the Conference of the Eighteen-Nation Committee on Disarmament.

The Assembly, at its seventeenth session, adopted a resolution entitled "Declaration on the Conversion to Peaceful Needs of the Resources Released by Disarmament," in which it expressed its appreciation of, and endorsed, the consultative group's report. It invited the Secretary-General and the governments of the developing countries to intensify their efforts to establish and implement soundly conceived projects and well-integrated development plans for implementation at such time as additional resources are released following an agreement on general and complete disarmament, and requested the Secretary-General to present his preliminary report on this matter to the Assembly at a forthcoming session.

Food Shortages, Famine, and World Food Program

The immediate postwar period was marked by critical food shortages, and both the United Nations and the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) concerned themselves with ways of overcoming them. Thus in February 1946 the General Assembly urged all governments and peoples to take immediate and drastic action to conserve food supplies and ensure the maximum output of grains. The following May, FAO called a special meeting in Washington on urgent food problems, at which a number of short-term and long-term recommendations to meet the situation were made.

The shortages persisted, however, and the General Assembly, as well as the Economic and Social Council, repeatedly considered various aspects of the question and made several recommendations to member governments regarding their policies in the field of production and distribution of food and their cooperation with FAO.

More recently, the United Nations as well as FAO considered other aspects of the problem of hunger and malnutrition, such as fluctuation in agricultural prices, rapid and balanced economic development of the areas where hunger and chronic malnutrition were the main problems, and the possible contribution of food surpluses or reserves toward a solution of the problem. In 1960 the Assembly endorsed the Freedom from Hunger Campaign launched by FAO and adopted a resolution aimed at providing food surpluses to food-deficient peoples through the United Nations system.

During its sixteenth session in 1961, the General Assembly adopted a resolution approving the establishment of an experimental World Food Program. The Program, to be undertaken jointly by the United Nations and FAO, in cooperation with other interested United Nations agencies and appropriate intergovernmental bodies, would employ contributions of food, cash, and services over a three-year experimental period for relieving emergency needs, for assisting in pre-school and school feeding, and for implementing economic and social development projects. The Assembly, at the same time, approved the establishment of a United Nations/FAO Inter-Governmental Committee of twenty member states of the United Nations and FAO to provide guidance on policy, administration, and operations of the Program, and of a joint United Nations/FAO Administrative Unit to be responsible for Program administration.

The Inter-Governmental Committee met in Rome in February 1962, and in its report recommended certain preparatory measures to the Economic and Social Council and FAO. The Council, in mid-1962, invited governments to prepare for pledging contributions to the Program, bearing in mind the target of \$100 million. In September a pledging conference was held in New York.

In December, the General Assembly at its seventeenth session passed a resolution which besides referring to its 1961 resolution on the United Nations Development Decade, noted with appreciation that thirty-nine member states of the United Nations and specialized agencies had pledged more than \$88.7 million in cash, services, and commodities for the Program.

United Nations Development Decade

On September 25, 1961, the President of the United States, while addressing the General Assembly, proposed that the 1960's be officially designated as the United Nations Development Decade. He considered that within the framework of the Decade the present efforts of the United Nations in promoting economic growth could be expanded and coordinated. The matter was discussed during the six-

teenth session of the Assembly and a resolution adopted unanimously on December 19.

The resolution considered that the economic and social development of the economically less developed countries was not only of primary importance to those countries but was also basic to the attainment of international peace and security and to a faster and mutually beneficial increase in world prosperity. It noted that, in spite of the efforts made in recent years, the gap in per capita incomes between the economically developed and less developed countries had increased and the rate of economic and social progress in the developing countries was still far from adequate. During the current decade, which the resolution designated as the United Nations Development Decade, all member states and their peoples were to intensify their efforts to accelerate progress toward self-sustaining growth of the economy of individual nations and their social advancement. The objective of these efforts would be the attainment, in each developing country, of a minimum annual rate of growth of aggregate national income of five per cent by the end of the Decade.

The resolution called upon member states of the United Nations and of the specialized agencies to pursue certain policies in order to achieve the goal of the Decade. The Secretary-General was requested, after taking account of the views of governments and in consultation with the heads of international agencies with responsibilities in the financial, economic, and social fields, the Managing Director of the Special Fund, the Executive Chairman of the Technical Assistance Board, and the regional economic commissions, to develop proposals for the intensification of action in the fields of economic and social development by the United Nations system of organizations. The resolution invited the Council to transmit the Secretary-General's recommendations, together with its views and its report on actions undertaken thereon, to member states of the United Nations and specialized agencies and to the General Assembly at its seventeenth session, in 1962.

In response to this request, the Secretary-General presented his proposals for action to the Council at its summer session in 1962. The proposals were grouped in seven chapters, entitled respectively: setting and problems for the Development Decade; the approach to development planning; mobilization of human resources; sectoral development; international trade; development financing; technical co-operation and other aids to development and planning.

Simultaneously with these proposals covering action by the whole United Nations family, the Secretary-General also submitted to the Council the individual submissions from the specialized agencies describing their proposed program for the Development Decade, and the views submitted by governments concerning their action.

The Secretary-General's proposals were received with appreciation by the Council and subsequently by the General Assembly at its seventeenth session. The Council passed a resolution by which it requested the Secretary-General to prepare, in cooperation with the regional economic commissions and other bodies and agencies of the United Nations, a program of detailed phased proposals for action in the more immediate future with respect to the basic factors of economic growth in the light of the objectives of the Development Decade. In the same resolution, the Council listed the following priority areas for the Development Decade: industrial development; promotion of export trade of developing countries; international commodity arrangements and compensatory financing; avoidance of restrictions to the trade of developing countries by regional and sub-regional groupings; increasing flow of long-term development capital; development of human resources; and, exploration and exploitation of natural resources.

Furthermore, the Council urged the "prompt attainment" of the target of \$150 million for the expanded program and the United Nations Special Fund as well as full support for the Freedom from Hunger Campaign and for the World Food Program. The resolution also referred to the importance of the Conference on the Application of Science and Technology for the Benefit of Less Developed Areas and requested the Secretary-General to make appropriate recommendations for action resulting from the findings of the Conference.

In a related resolution, the Council decided to establish a Special Committee on Coordination consisting of representatives of eleven states with particular emphasis on the Development Decade. The Special Committee is to keep under review the activities of the United Nations and its related agencies in the Decade; to consider in consultation with the agencies priority areas or projects relating to the objectives of the Decade; and to submit recommendations on these matters to the Council.

[For description of the work program and action by the United Nations and its related agencies in the areas mentioned above, see their respective sections in this volume.]

Regional Economic Commissions

Introduction

The terms of reference of each regional commission, as adopted by the Economic and Social Council, lay down its functions and the manner in which they are to be carried out. The basic functions of all the regional commissions are identical in that their aim is to assist in raising the level of economic activity in their respective regions and

to maintain and strengthen the economic relations of the countries in each region both among themselves and with other countries of the world.

The regional economic commissions are: the Economic Commission for Europe (ECE), established March 28, 1947; the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE), established March 28, 1947; the Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLA), established February 25, 1948; and the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), established April 29, 1958.

As subsidiary organs of the Economic and Social Council, the commissions report to it annually on their activities. To carry out their work properly, the Council authorized the commissions to adopt their own rules of procedure, including the method of selecting their chairman. The secretariats of the commissions are integral parts of the United Nations Secretariat as a whole. The secretariat of each commission is headed by an Executive Secretary. (*See also*, Economic and Social Council, *page 14.*)

All action taken by the commissions is intended to fit into the framework of the overall policies of the United Nations. They are empowered to make recommendations directly to member governments and to the specialized agencies concerned, but no action can be taken in respect of any country without the agreement of the government of that country.

In his annual report on the work of the Organization, covering the period June 16, 1961 to June 15, 1962, the Secretary-General gave the following appraisal of the stage reached by the system of regional economic commissions:

"In the four regional commissions a further consolidation of older endeavors took place simultaneously with the exploration of new ventures, with emphasis on rendering aid and services to member governments in planning and promoting economic and social development. . . . A feature that can be singled out in the recent activities of the commissions was the support expressed for implementation of the general principles of decentralization of economic and social activities of the United Nations. . . . Resolutions on decentralization adopted by each of the commissions reflect this urgency. Meanwhile regional activities indicate that the regional commissions are beginning to play a greater role in their respective areas. . . . A second major development was the establishment of economic and social planning institutes . . . which recognized the urgent need for well-integrated development plans in promoting economic and social development in the countries of the various regions. . . . Various activities in the regional commissions also reflect their concern about the problems of trade in their export commodities, which they regard as crucial to the success of development plans."

Decentralizing Economic and Social Work of the United Nations and Strengthening the Regional Economic Commissions

In mid-1960 a report of considerable importance, entitled *Five-Year Perspective, 1960-1964*, was transmitted to the Economic and Social Council. The report stated that "the regional economic commissions . . . are steadily gaining in importance as focal centers for the discussion and the promotion of economic development, including its social aspects. It is here rather than in the Council or the General Assembly that experts, planners and administrators meet, who have primary responsibilities for the economic development of the respective countries in the several regions."

Among the decisions resulting from the discussion of this report at the Council was a resolution pointing out that the regional economic commissions had an increasingly important role to play in at the Council was a resolution pointing out that the regional economic and social programs and activities at the regional level, including appropriate technical assistance projects.

The General Assembly, at its fifteenth session later that year, adopted a resolution asking, among other things, all members of the regional commissions to take advantage of the facilities and services offered by or through the secretariats of each commission. In addition, the Secretary-General was requested to strengthen the secretariats of the regional commissions and report, in 1961, on the steps taken to implement the Council resolution on the decentralization of activities and operations and the increased use of the services of the regional commissions.

In 1961 the Council had before it the Secretary-General's report. After considering it, the Secretary-General was asked, in transmitting the report to the Assembly at its sixteenth session, to give an up-to-date account of the practical steps that had been taken, or would have to be taken, to further decentralization, including the proposed expansion of the supporting staff of the regional commissions, in such a way as to ensure efficiency, economy, and the most effective execution of operational programs. The Council recommended that the question of establishing units in the secretariats of the commissions to deal with technical assistance questions should be left to the discretion of the Executive Secretary of each commission.

The Assembly, on December 19, adopted, unanimously, a resolution on the subject. It urged the strengthening, without delay, of the secretariats of the regional commissions as executive arms of the United Nations in the economic and social fields, including technical assistance operations; requested the Secretary-General to take immediate steps toward implementing fully the policy of decentralization through appropriate administrative arrangements and to report,

in 1962, on the organizational measures taken, or to be taken; and invited the specialized agencies concerned and the regional commissions to adjust cooperative arrangements to the extent required by decentralization.

In mid-1962, the Secretary-General's report, requested the previous year by the Assembly, was before the Council. Among other things, the report, in reviewing the need to strengthen further the role of the regional secretariats, dealt with the relations between the commissions and the technical assistance resident representatives, the increasing assignment of regional technical assistance advisors in various fields, the pooling of scarce expert resources at Headquarters, and the increases in the staff of the regional secretariats. As regards the latter, some of the additional posts requested by the Secretary-General were intended to strengthen the administrative services of the regional commissions and establish technical assistance coordination units to permit fuller participation of the commissions in technical cooperation activities. Finally, the report placed the question of decentralization in the perspective of a global strengthening of the economic and social activities of the United Nations, which the Secretary-General proposed to undertake through a controlled and balanced expansion of Secretariat resources. The Council took note of the Secretary-General's report and asked him to continue to take further steps to carry out the policy of decentralization.

In December, the Assembly at its seventeenth session, reiterated the Council's request of the Secretary-General, but asked him, in addition, to take into consideration the interests of states which were not members of any regional commission, by adopting such measures as might be necessary to ensure that they receive the same benefits as they would receive through membership. The Assembly also requested the Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions to submit recommendations regarding the further steps that might be necessary to carry out the policy of decentralization, and recommended that the Secretary-General continue to convene meetings of the executive secretaries of the commissions to discuss matters of common interest.

Economic Commission for Europe (ECE)

PURPOSE

The main objective of the Economic Commission for Europe is to "initiate and participate in measures for facilitating concerted action for the economic reconstruction of Europe, for raising the level of European economic activity, and for maintaining and strengthening the economic relations of the European countries both among themselves and with other countries of the world." To this major aim is

added the important task of providing governments with analysis and information of an economic, technological, and statistical character. The first session of the Commission was convened in Geneva, at the seat of the European Office of the United Nations, in May 1947, where ECE's headquarters are located. Since then the Commission has met regularly in the spring of each year at Geneva.

MEMBERSHIP AND ORGANIZATION

The thirty members of the Commission are: Albania, Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, the Byelorussian SSR, Cyprus, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany, Finland, France, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Spain, Sweden, Turkey, the Ukrainian SSR, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Kingdom, the United States, and Yugoslavia. Switzerland, which is not a member of the United Nations, takes part in a consultative capacity in the work of the Commission and its subsidiary organs.

STRUCTURAL DEVELOPMENT

The Commission has the following main subsidiary bodies: Committee on Agricultural Problems, Coal Committee, Conference of European Statisticians, Electric Power Committee, Committee on Gas, Housing Committee, Industry and Materials Committee, Inland Transport Committee, Manpower Committee, Steel Committee, Timber Committee, and Committee on the Development of Trade.

Officials and experts from government bodies dealing with questions of economic policy, representatives of industrial and commercial organizations as well as representatives of United Nations specialized agencies and other intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations participate in the work of the Commission's subsidiary organs. The subsidiary organs are, in their separate sectors of European economy, interstate consultative and administrative bodies. They provide a meeting place for collective deliberations and decisions of interested governments. Their aim is to harmonize state policies and in some cases to secure joint undertakings.

The committees, subcommittees, and working parties of the Commission meet in private sessions to deal with technical problems; no official records are kept, and only agreed reports of meetings and annual reports to the Commission are made public. This procedure, followed over a number of years, has aided unhampered and business-like execution of their work. The Commission is served by an international secretariat, which is part of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations.

WORK PROGRAM

The principal decisions taken at ECE's first two sessions concerned the transfer to the Commission of the functions of the emergency organizations established after the war in the field of relief and reconstruction and the creation of appropriate subsidiary bodies to carry on those functions. The initial structure of the Commission necessarily reflected postwar rebuilding, which coincided with the early period of the Commission's history. This phase was characterized by acute transport difficulties and scarcity of most basic materials. The nature of these bottleneck problems required a solution through international cooperation, which the Commission attempted through its system of committees and subsidiary bodies which were set up during ECE's initial period.

Soon after the phase of postwar shortages, the Commission turned its attention to long-term questions. In 1950 it adopted a resolution recognizing that the productivity of labor can be accelerated by means of an exchange of technical information on an international level. In 1952 the Commission approved a resolution concerning integrated economic development and commercial agreements. It recognized that one of the most effective ways for ECE to make a tangible contribution to economic development was to seek closer collaboration with ECLA and ECAFE. This collaboration has increased over the years and since 1959 has been extended to ECA.

In view of the importance being given by the United Nations to intensifying aid to less developed countries, the Commission adopted, during its annual session in 1961, two resolutions on this subject. The first invited the Executive Secretary to explore the possibilities of working out, together with the technical cooperation agencies of the United Nations, ways and means of developing a closer association with the activities of these agencies. The second suggested, *inter alia*, that the Executive Secretary continue to study the development of trade relations between Europe and the less developed countries with a view to promoting these relations.

Research. One of the important services which ECE furnishes to policy makers and the public is to supply facts and figures on the European economy and analyses of its developments and prospects in their world setting. Major responsibility for this periodic reporting rests with the Research and Planning Division. Its two most important periodic research publications are the *Economic Survey of Europe*, appearing early every year, and the *Economic Bulletin for Europe*, published at least twice in the interval between surveys. The *Survey* includes a review of economic developments in Europe during the preceding year, as well as chapters devoted to special problems,

usually of a longer-term character. Similarly, the *Bulletin* normally contains, besides a condensed analysis of more recent developments and prospects, one or two articles on specific problems, including an annual review of European trade.

ECE's Research Division also collaborates closely with the other divisions of the secretariat on studies needed in the work of the committees, in particular that of the Committee on the Development of Trade and, in addition, services the Conference of European Statisticians.

Agriculture. At each of its recent sessions the Committee on Agricultural Problems has examined the overall situation of European agriculture, paying special attention to the relation between supply and demand of agricultural products and foodstuffs in the different countries and to the probable consequences of this situation on trade, farm incomes, and prices. The Committee has also studied the current situation and the outlook for the coming twelve months for production, consumption, and trade of certain agricultural products, and received from the secretariat in 1962 a summary study of trade problems entitled *Ten Years of Agricultural Trade in Europe*. In 1960 the Committee undertook an analysis of the medium-term (five years) outlook for agricultural production and for consumption of foodstuffs in various European countries, with special reference to the commodities which are most important for intra-European trade.

The Committee has set up groups of experts to study: (1) basic factors determining the long-run demand for agricultural products; (2) problems of methodology of agricultural production projections; (3) problems of methodology and definitions in agricultural statistics; and (4) rationalization of farms.

Other activities of the Committee deal with the promotion and development of trade between countries of eastern and western Europe and the provision of a channel for the exchange of technical information and experience on agriculture. This latter has given rise to a variety of activities such as those of the Working Party on the Mechanization of Agriculture which studies methods of cultivation, harvesting, and conservation of the different crops, and problems related to the mechanization of farm work.

Coal. Although since 1957 coal has suffered through competition with other rapidly developing sources of energy, about two-thirds of Europe's energy needs are still being met by the use of coal. The Coal Committee has accordingly paid increasing attention to productivity problems, to profitability of investment and production, and to close scientific and technical collaboration between ECE countries, including the organization of study tours and exchange visits.

Gas. The Committee on Gas deals with the economic, statistical, and technical aspects of the production, transport, and utilization of gas, both natural and manufactured. Among the major subjects under consideration by the Committee are: the improvement of the flexibility in gas supply in order to meet the fluctuating demand; problems related to the development of natural gas resources for Europe; long-distance transport of gas by pipelines and in liquefied form; the storage of large volumes of gas; problems relating to the forecast of gas demand which have a major effect on gas economy; exchanges of experience on technical questions; and improvement and dissemination of statistics on gas. With a view to increasing the benefits of the work of the Gas Committee symposiums have been held in Paris, Bad Godesberg, and Moscow.

Electric Power. Since the end of the Second World War the outstanding feature of the electric power situation in Europe has been a particularly rapid increase in consumption. Electric power is replacing other forms of energy. The contribution to production to be expected from non-conventional energy sources, such as the tides, wind, or sun, is somewhat limited. Only by the production of electric power in nuclear power stations can the balance be restored. However, it is still uncertain when this new source of energy will be making a major contribution towards meeting Europe's energy requirements.

One of the prime concerns of the Committee on Electric Power has been the economic analysis of the electric power situation and the factors governing it. Transfers of electric power across national frontiers are attended by technical, administrative, and legal difficulties whose solution requires international cooperation, as does the harnessing of unexploited power resources for purposes of export. The Committee has been studying and dealing with these problems since its inception in 1947. For instance an intergovernmental body known as Yougelexport, set up under the Committee's auspices, has made detailed proposals for construction of hydro-power plants and transmission lines on Yugoslav territory to produce power for three neighboring countries. The Committee itself also studied possibilities for exports from other countries, including new possibilities of electric power exchanges between countries of central and south-eastern Europe based on the development of concentrated natural power resources.

Attention has been given to such problems as those of determining criteria for the choice of investment in building and operating power stations and transmission lines; ways of meeting electric power requirements during peak-load periods; thermal power plants and their operation; ways of promoting rational use of electric power; and the production, distribution, and use of electricity in rural areas.

Europe's potential water-power resources have been established and mapped on a comparable basis and a regular half-yearly *Bulletin on Conditions of Hydraulicity in Europe* is issued.

Comprehensive reports are issued annually on the electric power situation in Europe and its future prospects and on the state of rural electrification, and regular bulletins of electric energy statistics are published. Study tours have been undertaken in various countries.

Housing. A Housing Committee was established in 1946 as part of the Emergency Economic Committee for Europe; the Committee became part of the Economic Commission for Europe in the following year. The Committee's first task was to emphasize the tremendous housing needs arising from the destruction caused by the Second World War, the cessation of housing activity during the war, and current needs of the population.

In the next phase of activity, the Committee promoted systematic arrangements for international technical cooperation, recommending the establishment of national organizations in each country for building research and documentation. This culminated in the formation in 1953 of the International Council for Building Research, Studies and Documentation (CIB), an international non-governmental organization. The second phase of the Committee's work during this period was to seek a way toward intergovernmental cooperation in the sphere of housing policy, and in particular its economic and social aspects.

More recently the Committee's program of work has fallen into three main categories. The first covers such questions as housing financing, with special reference to public financial aid, housing trends and progress, housing requirements, and effective housing demand. Summaries and bulletins of housing and building statistics have been published regularly. The second main field of work concerns technical aspects of housing policy, with particular reference to reducing the cost of house construction. Such questions as standardization, house-building costs, maintenance costs, and industrialization of house construction, are examined. In 1961 a third field of work was added, namely, town and country planning. The main activities concern rural housing, the provision of land for house building, and the establishment of new towns. A Symposium on Urban Renewal was organized in 1961, and another on urbanization policies and programs was held in Poland in September 1962.

The Committee has given some assistance to less industrialized countries in tackling their housing problems by sending expert missions, sponsoring seminars, and organizing exchange study tours to various eastern and western European countries.

Industry and Materials. The Industry and Materials Committee, when originally established, covered, in addition to activities which

still remain in its terms of reference, steel, timber, manpower, and housing, all of which have subsequently become the responsibility of separate committees.

To facilitate international trade in engineering products, a special group of experts has been working on unified contract practices. A set of general conditions for the supply and erection of plant and machinery for import and export has been agreed upon and is being used on an increasing scale in international commerce, both within and outside Europe. Work along similar lines is under way with regard to durable consumer goods and certain other engineering articles.

Following a decision of the Commission, an overall report on the economic implications of automation was prepared, followed, in 1962, by a study on the production and export of capital goods in the fields of mechanical and electrical engineering. A meeting of experts in engineering was convened in August 1962 to consider various proposals for further work in this increasingly important and complex field.

Steel. All European countries are represented, together with the United States, in ECE's Steel Committee, which meets twice a year and is attended not only by government delegations but also by those of governmental and international non-governmental organizations. The national delegations normally include both government officials and senior industrialists. In its early days the Committee was concerned primarily with raw materials problems. It had a distinctly favorable influence on the availability and proper distribution of coke, scrap, and, to a lesser extent, ore in postwar years.

At present, however, the Steel Committee reviews the salient features of Europe's steel market, examines in an annual market review major trends in steel and steel-making raw materials and, on the basis of this review, considers what action might be taken. It also studies the long-term trends of the European steel industry. A study on this subject, published in 1959, provides projections of the steel demand in Europe and in other regions until 1972-75. In addition, the Committee concerns itself with developments in the principal steel consuming sectors and with major technical changes in the iron and steel industries, making such studies as *Comparison of Steel-Making Processes*, which was published in 1962.

The Committee endeavors to promote European cooperation on technical problems relating to steel. Technical and scientific steel institutes in participating countries are invited to develop mutual contacts, and efforts are being made to increase reciprocal visits both of a general character and follow-up visits by specialists. Under its current work program the Steel Committee is conducting inquiries on productivity in the iron and steel industry, on automation of rolling and finishing of steel, as well as studies on the use of steel in construction,

the economic aspects of iron-ore preparation, long-term trends in the competitive use of steel in comparison with other materials, and economic aspects of continuous casting.

The Committee and its Working Party on Steel Statistics have developed over the years a body of statistical material, which, together with publications such as the *Quarterly Bulletin of Steel Statistics for Europe* and *Statistics of World Trade in Steel*, has come to be recognized as an authoritative source of international steel statistics.

Timber. In April 1947, the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) convened a European Timber Conference in Czechoslovakia, which recommended that ECE should tackle the immediate problems of the European timber shortage, while FAO should concern itself with the long-term development of Europe's forest resources.

The ECE Timber Committee was, in the early years, chiefly concerned with the tasks of arranging loans through the International Bank for the re-equipment of Europe's war-damaged forest industries, and of achieving an equitable distribution of the available supplies of timber urgently required for reconstruction. Since 1953, however, the scope of the Timber Committee's activities has been steadily widened to include the economic aspects of technology, although the regular review of the market for forest products has remained the focal point of the Committee's interests. In the industrial field, the Timber Committee has adopted a program to study economic aspects of, and productivity in, the wood-processing industries. The first item in this program was a colloquium, held in December 1962, on the economic aspects of the production and utilization of fibreboard and particle board.

The Secretariat is undertaking a reappraisal of the first *Study of European Timber Trends and Prospects*, published in 1953. The new study, due for publication in 1963, will embrace the period 1950-75. Sector studies of trends in utilization of forest products have also been published.

The statistical program of the Timber Committee includes the collation, analysis, and dissemination of forest and forest products statistics, and statistical methodology. Regular publications include the Timber Committee's annual timber market review and the quarterly *Timber Bulletin for Europe*, containing statistics of production and trade of forest products.

In the field of forest operations, the joint FAO/ECE Committee on Forest Working Techniques and the Training of Forest Workers (in collaboration with ILO) deals with such matters as working methods, forest workers' training and safety, application of machinery to forest work, and logging in mountainous regions. Field work takes the form of study tours and training courses.

Transport. The Inland Transport Committee, which was set up by ECE in 1947, is the main intergovernmental instrument used to facilitate international transport and travel in Europe and to promote European cooperation in that field. Successes have been achieved in the step-by-step solution of questions affecting road, rail, and waterway transport.

ROAD TRANSPORT. The European continent is smaller than certain countries in the world and is characterized by a multiplicity of national frontiers and legislation. ECE, through studies and decisions, and the promotion of formal agreements, however, is steadily narrowing down the differences which exist between the various legislations on traffic rules, road signals and road marking, and on the equipment of vehicles.

The Economic Commission for Europe is also promoting the international recognition of national driving licenses and registration certificates and the abolition of certain customs documents previously required, as well as complete freedom for international circular tours by motor coach and for road transport of goods in transit. On the legal side, a convention concluded in 1956 defines the law governing contracts for the international carriage of goods by road. The Inland Transport Committee also evolved an arrangement for the carriage of goods under customs seals from the customs office of the area of departure to the customs office of the area of designation without inspection of the cargo at the frontier posts crossed. Other agreements were concluded on working hours of drivers engaged in international road transport and on regulations for the international transport of dangerous goods.

RAIL TRANSPORT. The Committee has promoted or carried out important studies, such as those on the adoption of common technical specifications, on a general European less-than-wagon-load tariff, which is completely independent of internal tariffs, on the establishment of the EUROPE Pool of Wagons, and on the introduction of automatic coupling.

As regards customs formalities, the Committee has introduced a simplified form of document for transit operations and has dispensed with any formality for the repair of wagons of the EUROPE Pool outside their country of origin.

INLAND WATER TRANSPORT. A comprehensive code of signals on inland waterways has been enacted, a set of regulations for the transport of dangerous goods is being prepared, and a convention for the unification of certain rules on collisions has been concluded.

OTHER TRANSPORT PROBLEMS. Various studies, such as those concerning track costs and the economic aspect of transport coordination, have contributed to the advancement of knowledge in transport economics. Continuous efforts are being made to improve and develop transport statistics and every year a *Bulletin of Transport Statistics for Europe* and a document containing *Statistics of Road Traffic Accidents in Europe* are published.

In cooperation with the Committee on Agricultural Problems, standards have been laid down for the packaging of fruits and vegetables. A formal agreement has been adopted which gives standards for refrigerated transport equipment and regulates the transport of highly perishable foodstuffs.

Trade. In 1948 ECE proposed the establishment of a Committee on the Development of Trade, but because of political difficulties it was not until 1953 that any concrete results were seen. At that time, after a series of consultations had been held providing facilities for bilateral trade talks on a multilateral framework, the way was paved for the agreement reached at the ninth session of the Commission in 1954 to reactivate the Committee on the Development of Trade.

The Committee now holds annual sessions at which the improvement of trade relations between countries with different economic systems is a main objective. It also considers developments in intra-European trade, examines means of expanding such trade, and concerns itself with problems arising in the trade of ECE countries with countries in other regions.

Another facet of the Committee's work is the promotion of intergovernmental agreements on improvements in commercial practices and policies. Thus, a convention on international commercial arbitration was drawn up and signed in 1961 by eighteen European countries. This convention has two principal objectives: to facilitate recourse to commercial arbitration in trade relations between all countries of Europe, irrespective of their economic structure; and to solve the problem of the appointment of arbitrators in cases where the parties to an arbitration agreement fail to agree on a choice.

The Committee has also been responsible, after setting up in 1957 a multilateral system for the transfer of balances held in bilateral payments accounts, for the transfer of balances totalling about \$75 million, with nineteen European countries and five outside Europe participating.

In addition, the Committee has established a working party to simplify and standardize export documents, has launched an effort to solve problems in the field of international insurance, and has made recommendations regarding multilateral transferability of payments in international trade.

In recent years governments have been utilizing the Committee

to an increasing extent for consideration of major trade-policy problems. At its sessions in 1960, 1961, and 1962 the Committee examined particularly the steps being taken to create subregional economic groupings in Europe; it has recommended to governments that they undertake negotiations whenever the establishment of such groupings creates problems for ECE countries not included. In response to a request by the Commission, the Committee has also undertaken work looking toward the removal of obstacles to trade of an economic, administrative, or policy character.

Conference of European Statisticians. The Conference is a permanent organization operating under the joint auspices of the United Nations Statistical Commission and ECE. Its purposes are to promote close and systematic cooperation among national statisticians responsible for the execution of official statistical work, to improve coordination among the international agencies active in the field of European statistics, to explore at the international level the newer and more complicated developments, and to formulate desirable standards in statistics. The members are the directors of the central statistical offices, or equivalent officials of countries participating in the work of ECE. The meetings are serviced by the ECE secretariat. The main value of the Conference's work lies in the exchange of scientific experience on questions of statistical methodology, especially the practical work of collecting and compiling official statistics.

The Conference also tries to reconcile and render comparable differing statistical concepts and practices as between countries with dissimilar economic and social systems. In particular, it studies the problems involved in making valid comparisons between the systems of national accounts in use in different European countries.

The scope of Conference work is indicated by the following list of some of the different fields of statistics it has already examined: censuses of population, housing, agriculture, industry, and distribution; national accounts and related statistics, including statistics of capital formation, savings, consumers' expenditure, financial capital accounts, and input-output studies; the use of electronic data-processing machines for statistical purposes; and statistics of higher education and graduate employment. Current statistics and other subjects considered by the Conference include indicators of short-term economic changes, manpower statistics collected by means of sample surveys, current housing and building statistics, current distribution statistics, statistics of stocks and actual consumption of steel, and seasonal adjustments of economic series.

The Conference works closely with the specialized agencies and other international organizations, making joint studies and co-sponsoring seminars on specific problems.

The Conference has drawn up a five-year program of work for

the period 1962-63 to 1966-67. Preparatory work is being carried out for future meetings on the following subjects: statistics for the public sector, censuses of population and housing; index numbers of industrial production and related prices series; input-output tables; agricultural sector accounts; current agricultural statistics; and labor data for productivity measurements.

Other Activities. ECE also gives attention to certain problems which do not fall directly within the structure of its established committees. Thus, governments in ECE have shown an interest in the energy problem as a whole—that is, beyond areas already being dealt with by existing subsidiary bodies of the organization. In response to the Commission's request, a study on *The Energy Situation in Europe* was prepared, analyzing the energy balance in the past and present, and trends up to 1975, as well as the means by which future needs for traditional and non-conventional energy might be satisfied. In March 1958 the Executive Secretary convened a special meeting of government experts to consider which energy problems in Europe might usefully be examined in ECE.

ECE also deals with the problem of water pollution control and abatement in Europe. In February 1961 a conference, organized under the auspices of the secretariats of ECE, FAO, WHO, and IAEA, was held in Geneva to examine technical, economic, and legal aspects of this problem. Then in the autumn of 1962, forty experts attended a travelling seminar on the Rhine to study how different riparian countries handle technical, economic, legal, and administrative questions arising in connection with water pollution control.

A number of questions of economic cooperation in Europe involving major policy issues for governments have been raised in ECE. They concern the elaboration of new forms of cooperation and the question of regional cooperation in the economic aspects of the peaceful uses of nuclear energy. A meeting of senior economic advisers was convened in March 1961 to discuss international cooperation as a factor in promoting economic growth and perspectives; a second meeting, in November 1962, was devoted to considering criteria for investment policies in countries with both centrally-planned and market economies.

ECE also deals with questions of automation—to which subsidiary bodies have given increasing attention in its economic aspects—and to labor productivity. With regard to the latter, the Commission has included a number of projects in its work program. Among these was an examination of labor productivity in the iron and steel industry made on an internationally comparable basis in March 1962.

Cooperation with United Nations Agencies and Other International Organizations. From its very inception, ECE has cooperated

with ILO, FAO, the Monetary Fund, the International Bank, UNESCO, WMO, WHO, and IAEA. The ECE secretariat also cooperates closely with the United Nations technical assistance programs, assisting, for instance, in the briefing of experts and fellows before they assume their assignments. In addition, relations are maintained with a number of intergovernmental bodies outside the United Nations structure which operate in Europe in fields covered by the Commission. Further, in view of the highly technical character of much of the work transacted under the auspices of the Commission, the active participation of non-governmental organizations in the work of ECE committees has become an established feature.

Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE)

FOUNDATION

The Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE) was established as one of the regional economic commissions of the United Nations by a decision of the Economic and Social Council in March 1947. The first session of the Commission was held in June of that year.

The terms of reference approved by the Council for ECAFE defined the geographic scope of the Commission and listed its original membership. From time to time, the terms of reference have been amended to meet the extension of the Commission's work and role.

GEOGRAPHIC SCOPE

The geographic area covered by the Commission's activities as of December 1962 included: Afghanistan, Brunei, Burma, Cambodia, Ceylon, China, Federation of Malaya, Hong Kong, India, Indonesia, Iran, Japan, Korea, Laos, Mongolia, Nepal, North Borneo, Pakistan, the Philippines, Sarawak, Singapore, Thailand, and Viet-Nam.

MEMBERSHIP

The Commission had, at the end of 1962, twenty-five members and four associate members.

The twenty-five members were: Afghanistan, Australia, Burma, Cambodia, Ceylon, China, Federation of Malaya, France, India, Indonesia, Iran, Japan, Korea, Laos, the Mongolian People's Republic, Nepal, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Pakistan, the Philippines, Thailand, the USSR, the United Kingdom, the United States of America, and Viet-Nam.

The four associate members were: Brunei, Hong Kong, North Borneo and Sarawak, and Singapore.

TERMS OF REFERENCE

The purposes and scope of action of the Commission are set out in the terms of reference. In summary, they include the following:

- to initiate and participate in measures for facilitating concerted action to raise the level of economic activity of Asia and the Far East and for maintaining and strengthening the economic relations of those areas both among themselves and with other countries of the world;

- to make or sponsor investigations and studies of economic and technological problems;

- to undertake or sponsor the collection, evaluation, and dissemination of economic, technological, and statistical information;

- to perform such advisory services as the countries of the region may desire, provided these services do not overlap with those of the specialized agencies or those provided by the United Nations technical assistance program;

- to assist the Economic and Social Council in discharging its functions within the region in connection with any economic problems, including problems in the field of technical assistance;

- to deal with the social aspects of economic development and the interrelationship of economic and social factors.

In carrying out these tasks, the Commission acts within the policy directives laid down by its parent body, the Economic and Social Council, and by the General Assembly. It is precluded from taking any action in respect to any country without the agreement of the government of that country.

The work of the Commission is conducted through its annual sessions and through meetings of its main committees and subsidiary bodies. Its headquarters are in Bangkok, Thailand.

SESSIONS

In the early stages of the Commission, the sessions were held more than once a year, but since 1949, the sessions have been held once annually. At the sessions, the work of the Commission and the secretariat over the previous year is reviewed and the program of work and priorities for the coming year are laid down. The Commission has adopted the practice of holding its sessions in different member countries. Each session decides the venue for the subsequent meeting.

Eighteen sessions had been held by the end of 1962, as follows: in June 1947, Shanghai; in November-December 1947, Baguio, the Philippines; in June 1948, Ootacamund, India; in November-December 1948, Lapstone, Australia; in October 1949, Singapore; in May 1950, Bangkok, Thailand; in February-March 1951, Lahore, Pakistan; in January-February 1952, Rangoon, Burma; in February 1953, Ban-

dung, Indonesia; in February 1954, Kandy, Ceylon; in March-April 1955, Tokyo, Japan; in February 1956, Bangalore, India; in March 1957, Bangkok, Thailand; in March 1958, Kuala Lumpur, Federation of Malaya; in March 1959, Broadbeach, Australia; in March 1960, Bangkok, Thailand; in March 1961, New Delhi, India; in March 1962, Tokyo, Japan.

The nineteenth session was to be held in Manila, the Philippines, in March 1963.

MAIN COMMITTEES

The Commission has three standing committees: the Committee on Industry and Natural Resources, the Committee on Trade, and the Inland Transport and Communications Committee. These meet annually and are composed of representatives of all members and associate members of ECAFE. To handle specialized aspects of the committees' work, a number of subcommittees have been established which meet regularly in advance of the full committee.

Working parties, seminars, and consultative groups are convened by ECAFE to deal with a wide variety of subjects directly connected with the work of the Commission. A number of these are convened jointly by ECAFE and other United Nations bodies such as the Bureau of Technical Assistance Operations (BTAO) and interested specialized agencies.

Permanent regional bodies, such as the Conference of Asian Economic Planners and the Conference of Asian Statisticians have evolved from working parties or similar subsidiary bodies.

Working in close association with ECAFE, and particularly with its Bureau of Flood Control and Water Resources Development, is the Committee for Coordination of Investigations of the Lower Mekong Basin.

The work of ECAFE is carried out in close working relationship and coordination with resident representatives of the Technical Assistance Board and directors of Special Fund programs in the countries of Asia and the Far East and with regional and local representatives of all United Nations agencies. It enjoys also the cooperation and support of many nongovernmental organizations concerned with different fields of its activities.

SECRETARIAT

A total staff of 268—professional and general service—working under the direction of an Executive Secretary, comprise the ECAFE secretariat. The Executive Secretary is U Nyun of Burma. He was appointed in 1959.

MAIN ACTIVITIES

The activities of the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East have developed along three main lines; first, fact-finding, fact-recording, and analysis; second, recommendations for governmental and intergovernmental action; and finally, the rendering of advisory services and operational functions in connection with technical assistance and Special Fund projects. Basically, ECAFE's activities are directed toward helping governments to help themselves. There has been a shift from study and research—though these continue to be an important part of its activities—to concrete action.

A regional approach has been stressed since the Commission's session of 1960 when a resolution was approved calling for regional cooperation in the fields of trade and industry. In the subsequent work of the Commission's subsidiary bodies and the secretariat, the concept of regional collaboration was applied also to questions of overall planning, agriculture, transport and communications, and water resources development.

Planning for Economic Development. ECAFE, over the years, has given practical assistance to governments in this field, but in 1959 it embarked on a new attempt to assist governments in making their development efforts more effective. Each year a group of top-ranking experts meets to discuss the theory and practice of some aspects of development planning and to make recommendations on the most efficient and practical approach to programming techniques. The report of the first group on *Programming Techniques for Economic Development* was published in 1960, and the report of the second group on *Formulating Industrial Development Programmes* in 1961. A third report on the *Problems of Long-term Economic Projections* will be published in 1963.

The first session of the Conference of Asian Economic Planners was held in 1961. This recommended, among other things, the establishment of an Asian Institute of Economic Development and the provision of a panel of experts to render advisory services on development planning.

At a meeting of the *Ad Hoc* Committee on Asian Institute of Economic Development held in August 1962, a request was made to the United Nations Special Fund for assistance in the establishment of the Institute. The Institute, which is to commence operation in January 1964 for an initial period of five years, will provide an annual training course in the field of economic development and planning, as well as undertake research work and render advisory services to Asian governments.

Statistics and Research. Since its inception, ECAFE has collected, assessed, and disseminated statistics from the countries of the region

and has sought to improve statistical methods through regional conferences of statisticians. The work has gained added impetus since the Conference of Asian statisticians was established as a permanent body in 1957. The Conference, which by the end of 1962 had held four sessions, together with its subsidiary bodies of seminars and expert groups on statistics, follows a long-range program of work. Its objectives are to aid countries in improving statistics and in building up an integrated system of statistics to meet the needs for planning and implementing economic and social development.

The first major project was the taking of a population, housing, and agriculture census, conducted under a world program by most countries of the region around 1960. ECAFE and the United Nations Statistical Office assisted governments in developing statistical standards and in conducting the census through a team of regional census advisors. Currently, in pursuance of the World Census Program, the 1963 World Program of Basic Industrial Statistics, participated in by most countries of the region, is under way.

The secretariat's annual *Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East* is a unique source of information and reference. Since 1957, it has, in addition to presenting a review of the current economic situation in Asia, taken up a major economic problem for study, for example, in 1957, types of economy prevailing in the ECAFE region; in 1958, postwar industrialization; in 1959, postwar trade; in 1960, public finance; in 1961, economic growth; and in 1962, Asia's trade with western Europe.

International Trade. The ECAFE Committee on Trade, as the principal subsidiary body of the Commission in the field of international trade, reviews, at its annual sessions, developments in trade and trade policies of the countries of the region, as well as related developments outside the region. Policy positions and recommendations from the regional point of view are formulated at these sessions.

Among the various questions of commercial policy dealt with are: developments relating to the European Economic Community and other regional arrangements; changes in import and export policies; state trading; international trade fairs and exhibitions; commercial arbitration; shipping and ocean freight rates; customs administration; and ways and means of promoting regional cooperation in trade.

Intraregional Trade Promotion Talks, held annually among member countries of the region, provide a forum through which additional opportunities of intraregional trade and new ideas on regional trade cooperation are discovered and developed. Under these Talks, commodity consultations have been held on pepper and coconut and coconut products.

The ECAFE Working Party on Customs Administration has recommended various measures for the simplification of customs formal-

ties and procedures relating to the movement of goods, travellers, businessmen, and tourists. It adopted a Code of Recommended Customs Procedures, provisions of which have been for the large part adopted and implemented.

A Center for the Promotion of Commercial Arbitration has been set up within the secretariat which will assist the Asian countries in developing commercial arbitration through educational work, research, and technical advisory services.

Industry and Natural Resources. ECAFE's work in industry has developed in particular in the following fields: electric power, mineral resources development, metals and engineering, chemical and allied industries, small-scale industries, and housing and building materials as well as industrial feasibility surveys and investment promotion.

CHEMICAL AND ALLIED INDUSTRIES. The chemical industry has become one of the fastest growing sectors in the industrial development of all countries in the region. ECAFE has given special attention to the promotion of those industries utilizing local raw materials. Thus, in collaboration with FAO, it organized in 1960 in Tokyo the first Conference on Pulp and Paper Development in Asia and the Far East, which brought together leading research workers, industrial planners, and industrialists from within and outside the region to examine the practical ways and means of developing the pulp and paper industry in ECAFE countries.

Similarly, ECAFE organized in Bangkok in 1962 a Seminar on the Development of Basic Chemical and Allied Industries which devoted special attention to promoting the international flow of capital, technical "know-how," and knowledge of various kinds of equipment required for the development of chemical industries. It also considered the possibility of certain market-sharing arrangements, whereby each country would develop a complementary range of chemical products, thus enabling the countries in the region to pool their development efforts and ensuring better utilization of existing resources.

INDUSTRIAL FEASIBILITY SURVEY AND INVESTMENT PROMOTION. One of the main hindrances to the industrial development in ECAFE countries has been the lack of carefully prepared projects and investment proposals. The ECAFE secretariat, in collaboration with BTAO, has organized a comprehensive Industrial Feasibility Survey Mission for Burma and Singapore. The main objectives of the mission are: to pinpoint the specific types of industries which could be readily established or expanded; to advise on measures for improving the operational efficiency of the existing industries; and to recommend policies and measures which are needed to promote orderly and sound indus-

trial development. The result of such a survey is intended to serve as an investment guide for the government development agencies as well as for private industrialists.

ELECTRIC POWER. Increased electric power for industry, agriculture, and domestic purposes is one of the most urgent needs facing the region's development planners. One of the first tasks which ECAFE set itself, therefore, was the collection and compilation of data on generation, transmission, distribution, and utilization of electricity in countries of the region. It publishes annually the *Electric Power Bulletin* which gives such data.

Since its establishment, the Sub-Committee on Electric Power has held eight sessions in which electric power experts discussed matters connected with electric supply industry, such as utilization of wood poles for power line support, utilization of low-grade coal for power production, standards and standardization of equipment and codes of practice, formulation of electricity tariff rates, safety regulations, training of personnel, and organization problems. Further, a working party on assessment of hydroelectric potential and a seminar on energy resources and electric power development were held, and a study tour of experts from the region was organized for visits to power supply undertakings in Europe, the USSR, and the United States.

ECAFE has recognized the importance of extending electricity to rural areas and has carried out extensive studies covering technical, economic, and administrative aspects of this problem. It has also set up a panel of experts on rural electrification to visit the countries of the region on request and tender advice on their specific power problems.

MINERAL RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT. Emphasis has been given by ECAFE to mineral resources development. A working party of senior geologists, which began work in 1954, has completed a geological map and an oil and natural gas map of the region and is now preparing a mineral map; in some countries, geological survey departments were established where none had hitherto existed, and in others the services and facilities of geological survey departments were made available in the compilation of the maps; finally, joint surveys of the geology of border areas, made by some countries, notably the Federation of Malaya and Thailand, have resulted in new discoveries of geological and mineralogical value.

ECAFE was the first United Nations body to initiate meetings in the petroleum field. The first Symposium on the Development of Petroleum Resources of Asia and the Far East was held in December 1958 in New Delhi. Arising from this, the Commission accepted an offer from the Government of Iran to establish the first regional pet-

roleum institute in its country. The second Symposium was held in September 1962 in Teheran.

As geological mapping is closely related to topographical mapping, the secretariat assisted in the organization of United Nations regional cartographic conferences for Asia and the Far East (*see page 284*).

METALS AND ENGINEERING. Through the ECAFE Sub-Committee on Metals and Engineering, Asian and non-Asian experts are regularly brought together to discuss the common problems of metals manufacture and the development of various engineering industries.

The Sub-Committee has put forward suggestions concerning new techniques for iron and steel production, suitable ways of developing non-ferrous metals producing industries and engineering industries, and, in general, the development of existing natural resources. Suitable scrap collection techniques have also been recommended. ECAFE also facilitates tests and research on raw materials and gives advice on the planning of projects, the layout of plants, and cost and quality control methods. The Sub-Committee has also examined the problems of the ship-building, boat-building, and repairing industries, of the machine tool industry, and of various engineering industries in the ECAFE region, and has made recommendations for their development.

In cooperation with BTAO, ECAFE arranged a steel survey mission in Singapore, and study tours by which Asian iron and steel engineers and manufacturers have been able to see the latest techniques used in more advanced countries including Japan and several European countries.

HOUSING AND BUILDING MATERIALS. The ECAFE Working Party on Housing and Building Materials has tried to stimulate increased production of housing for low-income families. A comparative study of building costs in relation to the wages of workers in the countries of the region was made in order to help housing technicians and administrators reduce the overall costs of building. Other ECAFE studies have dealt with the financing of housing, building codes, and housing standards.

To promote the continued study of building materials and their better use and of housing problems in the region, ECAFE, with the help of the United Nations and the host countries, has established regional housing centers in New Delhi and in Bandung, Indonesia, the first for the hot and arid tropical zone and the other for the hot and humid tropical zone.

Transport and Communications. Since deficiencies in the region's transport facilities adversely affect economic development, ECAFE has made substantial efforts to tackle some of the outstanding problems

through technical studies and research, study tours, exchange of information, and, increasingly in recent years, by rendering advisory services to governments. The Inland Transport and Communications Committee (originally established in 1951 as the Inland Transport Committee) has initiated studies on such subjects as coordination of different means of transport, transport development and planning, statistics and accounting procedures for transport undertakings, freight rate structures, and transport refrigeration. A number of country surveys of transport facilities and requirements have been undertaken as a basis for advising governments on the development of their inland transport systems.

Transport statistics are regularly compiled, analyzed, and disseminated by the secretariat, which also prepares a half-yearly *Transport and Communications Bulletin for Asia and the Far East*.

RAILWAYS. One of ECAFE's principal achievements in this field was the establishment in Lahore, Pakistan, in cooperation with BTAO, of a regional Training Center for Railway Operating and Signalling Officials. Responsibility for operating the training center was transferred in 1958 to the Government of Pakistan, but the center continues to provide training facilities on a regional basis.

Studies and recommendations made by ECAFE concerning railways include the following: improved methods of track construction and maintenance; speedier turn-around of rolling stock; increased capacity of single-line tracks; economic use of low-grade fuels in steam locomotives; repairs and maintenance of rolling stock and various aspects of diesel traction; laying and maintenance of long-welded tracks; the technical and economic aspects of introducing containers for transport of freight; research and experimentation of technical railway problems; and development of international railway traffic.

HIGHWAYS. The Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East has prepared standard forms for a highway register, a highway bridge register, and a register for recording data on concrete road pavements and for the preparation and presentation of highway project schemes to ensure uniformity, efficiency, and economy in establishing useful inventories of highway assets and requirements.

Studies on the engineering and traffic aspects of highway safety were carried out by a seminar held in Tokyo in May 1957. The first Study Week on Traffic Engineering and Highway Safety organized by the Government of India, under the auspices of ECAFE, in Bombay in 1959, was followed by a second Study Week organized by the Government of the Philippines in Manila, in September 1961.

The main aspects of road passenger transport for the region were discussed at the Seminar on Highway Transport, which met in Madras in October 1961. The Seminar's recommendations covered, *inter alia*,

the integration of small bus operators, planning and consolidation of available transport facilities, ways and means of financing their expansion and improvement, and regulation and control of passenger transport so as to ensure efficient operation and regular services.

THE ASIAN HIGHWAY. The importance of developing adequate international highway communications in the region was formerly recognized by ECAFE in November 1958, when it proposed the development of an international network in Asia, based as far as possible on existing roads.

By the end of 1962, considerable progress had been achieved in the implementation of the project. Agreement had been reached on the routes to be designated as international highways and priority routes; international standards had been evolved for highways and bridges; plans had been drawn up for the preparation of detailed maps, and information on transport and traffic aspects of the proposed network was being collected; ECAFE member countries had also agreed on a code providing a uniform system of road signs and signals, road markings, and signs for road works. Two other codes agreed upon relate to motor vehicles and trailers in international traffic, with special reference to rules of the road, equipment to be required of motor vehicles in international traffic, and conditions to be fulfilled by drivers of such vehicles.

When complete, the Asian Highway will be a 55,000-kilometer network of roads spread throughout the countries of Asia between Iran and Viet-Nam and Indonesia in the southeast. Westwards from Iran, it will link up with the European highway system. The main through route, stretching 13,300 kilometers from Teheran to Singapore and Saigon was almost complete by the end of 1962 with only 550 kilometers still unfit for motor traffic. The missing links, measuring about seventy to 170 kilometers each, are in Burma, in East Pakistan, and in southern Thailand.

INLAND WATERWAYS. In cooperation with BTAO, ECAFE organized study tours of high-level governmental personnel to Europe and the United States in 1951 and to the USSR and Hungary in 1959. On their return, the experts helped to introduce administrative, technical, and operational improvements in inland waterway craft and techniques in their respective countries.

To encourage development of inland waterway transport, ECAFE published a collection of selected plans of vessels, prepared a comparative study of various types of marine engines, which focused attention on the economic advantages of diesel engines for marine propulsion as compared with conventional steam engines, and cooperated with the International Labour Organisation in setting up the regional Marine Diesel Training Center at Rangoon, Burma. This cen-

ter has been taken over by the Government of Burma but continues to be open to trainees from all countries of the region.

In view of the great economic significance of coastwise shipping for several countries of the region, ECAFE has defined the basic characteristics for two prototype coasting vessels that would be suitable to meet the more common requirements and has sponsored the preparation of complete sets of contract drawings and specifications for such vessels.

Currently, ECAFE is giving special attention to the introduction of modern types of craft, improvement of dredging techniques, classification of inland waterways, and inland waterway transport statistics.

TOURISM AND INTERNATIONAL TRAVEL. The important role which tourism can play in the economic development of the region and in promoting better understanding of its countries and peoples was early recognized by ECAFE. It assisted the International Union of Official Travel Organizations to establish regional bodies to promote the development of tourism and to strengthen the secretariat's relationships with international non-governmental organizations in this field.

In 1960, the Commission adopted a resolution which urged governments of the region to cooperate by providing facilities for launching a tourist promotion campaign during the year 1961, and designated that year as "Visit the Orient Year."

In cooperation with the Government of India and ВТАО, a Seminar on Promotion of Tourism was convened in New Delhi in 1961. Stemming from this, various countries are organizing study weeks under the auspices of ECAFE to examine specific aspects of tourist promotion problems. The first of such study weeks was held in 1962 in Karachi.

Flood Control and Water Resources Development. When ECAFE's Bureau of Flood Control and Water Resources Development was first established in 1949, it dealt mainly with flood control and allied problems. In subsequent years, the scope of work of the Bureau was expanded to cover the domain of multiple-purpose integrated river basin development.

Various studies of specific importance to the region, such as those on river basin planning, water resources development in certain countries, and basic problems in hydrology, were completed and published by the Bureau in the *Flood Control Series*. The Bureau also publishes a quarterly periodical—*The Water Resources Journal*—which gives up-to-date information on water resources development projects and activities in the ECAFE region. A regional conference on water resources development is convened biennially by the Bureau. Recogniz-

ing the importance of better utilization of water resources in the context of economic development, the Bureau is undertaking studies on water code, water management, and development of deltaic areas.

The Bureau has also provided assistance to governments in the region, at their request, in the form of expert advice on such matters as planning of river basin development, specific water resources development projects, and formulation of requests for assistance to the Special Fund. The Bureau assumes the function of executing agency for a number of Special Fund projects.

The most important project initiated by the Bureau was the development of the water resources of the Lower Mekong Basin.

MEKONG RIVER PROJECT. The Mekong is one of the greatest rivers in the world. From its origin in the mountains of the Tibetan plateau in China, it sweeps along the border of Burma and runs, in its lower basin, through Laos, Thailand, Cambodia, and Viet-Nam into the South China Sea. Of the total drainage area of the river, some seventy-seven per cent lies within the four countries of the Lower Basin, where seventeen million people live.

ECAFE took a special interest in the Mekong as early as 1951. In that year, the Bureau of Flood Control, in cooperation with Cambodia, Laos, Thailand, and Viet-Nam, initiated a series of field investigations of the Mekong River. These, in turn, led to the organization by ECAFE in 1956 of a team of high-ranking international experts to conduct a comprehensive reconnaissance of the river's potential resources for irrigation, navigation, flood control, and hydroelectric power. The resultant report stimulated the four lower basin riparian countries to realize the importance to their economies of developing the Mekong. In October 1957 they established, under the aegis of the United Nations, a Committee for Coordination of Investigations of the Lower Mekong Basin, composed of representatives of each and serviced by the ECAFE secretariat.

The Committee's first action was to request the United Nations to send a group of international experts to undertake further comprehensive studies and make detailed recommendations for joint action. The mission, organized under the Technical Assistance Administration and headed by Lieutenant-General Raymond A. Wheeler, of the United States, carried out a three-month survey of the river, both by land and by air, and submitted a report in February 1958 calling for a multi-purpose program of studies and data collection which could lead to a full development stage. The Wheeler report also recommended a five-year program of investigation, with an expenditure of about \$9 million, and proposed that a "high-level international technical advisory board of engineers of world-wide reputation" be appointed by the Coordination Committee. Engineers from France,

India, the United Kingdom, and the United States were appointed to the Advisory Board when later set up.

An important step in the furtherance of the Mekong program was made in 1959 with the appointment, by the United Nations Secretary-General in consultation with the four riparian countries' Governments, of Dr. C. Hart Schaaf as Executive Agent of the Coordination Committee; overall day-to-day management, under the Committee, of the ever-increasing technical and administrative complexities of the project was thus provided for.

By the end of 1958, field operations in connection with the program of investigations had already started, and in 1959 engineers and equipment had begun to move on to key sites in the Mekong basin. Since then, hydrologic stations have been established, the work of levelling the main river has been completed, and aerial mapping of the main stream and tributaries areas has been carried out.

As the four riparian countries tackled the task of taming the river, financial and technical assistance flowed to them from many quarters. As early as 1957, France announced that it was placing the equivalent of \$100,000 at the disposal of the Committee. Within a year, the Committee's resources exceeded \$4 million; by the end of 1962 they had grown to \$33 million.

Participating in this complex international venture are sixteen countries, eleven United Nations agencies, three foundations, two private companies, and the four lower Mekong riparian states. Resources of manpower, equipment, training facilities, or materials have been made available or pledged by Australia, Canada, China, Federal Republic of Germany, France, India, Iran, Israel, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Pakistan, the Philippines, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

Agriculture. ECAFE, in close cooperation with the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), has undertaken various projects in the field of food and agriculture. For instance, the two organizations set up a Joint Agriculture Division within the ECAFE secretariat in Bangkok. Under this joint sponsorship, a meeting of government experts on methods of agricultural development planning was held in Bangkok in 1957, and in 1960 an Expert Group on Selected Aspects of Agricultural Planning in Asia and the Far East was convened. The report of this group dealt with, among other things, techniques of agricultural planning and the appraisal and implementation of agricultural plans.

Most governments of the region have machinery for setting food and agricultural prices. The ECAFE/FAO Joint Division has been studying price policies since 1954 and has published two reports. In addition, in 1958, ECAFE joined with FAO in sponsoring, in New Delhi, a

regional Center on Policies to Support and Stabilize Agricultural Prices and Incomes in Asia and the Far East, which reviewed price policies and other agricultural support measures and discussed the producer and consumer aspects of price policies.

Two reports—one on the impact on the agricultural economy of community development in Ghosi Block, Uttar Pradesh, India, and the other on farmers' associations in Taiwan—were published in 1960 embodying the results of field studies. An article entitled "Capital Formation in Agriculture: A Case Study in Uttar Pradesh, India," and a paper entitled "A note on the Utilization of Agricultural Surpluses for Economic Development in Pakistan" were published in 1961. ECAFE and FAO also collaborated in undertaking a study of trends and prospects of the timber trade in the region and jointly organized, in Tokyo in 1960, a regional conference on pulp and paper development.

Social Affairs. In 1959, the Economic and Social Council, on the recommendation of ECAFE, amended the terms of reference of ECAFE to "deal as appropriate with social aspects of economic development and the interrelationship of economic and social factors." A Division of Social Affairs has been attached to the ECAFE secretariat to deal with social policy and other questions of special interest to the region, such as population, community development, family and child welfare, and the training of welfare personnel. The Division contributes to studies and other projects undertaken by ECAFE; it carries out functions stemming from the work of the Social and Population Commissions of the United Nations Economic and Social Council, and of the Council itself; and finally, it plays an important role in the United Nations technical assistance activities in social fields.

SOCIAL POLICY AND DEVELOPMENT. The Division has assisted the United Nations Bureau of Social Affairs with case studies concerning problems of balanced economic and social development and levels of living. It assisted the Government of Thailand in the survey of the hill tribes in the northeastern part of the country.

POPULATION. At the 1959 session of ECAFE, there was a comprehensive discussion of the population problems in the region and the recommendation was made to organize a regional population conference.

The Regional Seminar on Evaluation and Utilization of Population Census Data in Asia and the Far East was consequently held in 1960. As a follow-up, it was decided to create a regional team of advisers to assist governments in carrying out analytical studies on population census results and other relevant information required for the formulation of policies for economic and social development. The

first member of the team was appointed in 1962. In addition, the United Nations has established, in cooperation with the Indian Government, a Demographic Training and Research Center in Bombay.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT. In a number of ECAFE countries, governments have initiated community development programs aimed at enabling the villagers, who constitute a large majority of the population, to participate actively in the improvement of their economic, social, and cultural conditions. Another aim is the integration of rural communities into the life of the nation. ECAFE has been actively concerned in these programs. In cooperation with the Government of Thailand, it conducted the Asian Seminar on Planning and Administration of National Community Development Programs in Bangkok in 1961. Thus, the role of community development in the context of national economic and social development planning was considerably clarified.

Later that year an Asian Conference on Community Development was held in Bangkok. The Conference recommended, *inter alia*, the need for an exchange of information in the community development field, the establishment of national community development programs, and that specific measures for regional cooperation and international assistance in the community development field be formulated.

A number of countries in the ECAFE region have been concerned about the recent growth in urban population resulting from industrialization and its effects on family and community life. In recognizing its concern and responsibility in this field, ECAFE, in cooperation with the Government of Singapore, convened an Asian Seminar on Urban Community Development in 1962. The Seminar, among other things, identified the common needs of urban areas resulting from urbanization and the basic services needed to meet these needs; determined, to some degree, the role of local organizations and the relationship between urban and rural community development; and dealt with administration and organization of urban community development programs and the training of personnel. A number of suggestions were made for international and regional cooperation and technical assistance in the field of urban community development, including the establishment of integrated pilot projects and better exchange of information.

SOCIAL WELFARE. Advisory services in the field of social welfare are provided, at the request of the countries in the ECAFE region, for planning national social service programs and organizing in-service and professional training projects for personnel.

Recognizing the importance of social services for families and children, a Seminar on the Organization and Administration of Family

and Child Welfare Services was held by ECAFE, in cooperation with the Bureau of Social Affairs, BSAO, and the Government of the Federation of Malaya, in 1960, in Kuala Lumpur. As a follow-up to this meeting, an Asian Seminar on Training for Family and Child Welfare was held in Bangkok in 1962. The Seminar discussed the nature and needs of services for families and children; the personnel requirements for these services; the content of training for family and child welfare personnel; the need for training in connection with inter-disciplinary relationships and cooperation; and some major problems connected with training. It was recommended that the highest priority be given to the establishment of a regional training center for advanced studies in social welfare, as well as for training in administration, supervision, teaching, social policy, and research.

Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLA)

PURPOSE AND GENERAL PATTERN OF WORK

The Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLA) was established in February 1948 with the aim of helping Latin American governments promote the economic development of their countries and improve the standards of living of their peoples. In so doing, ECLA also endeavors to strengthen economic relations both among countries in the region and with other nations in the world.

In carrying out its work ECLA maintains close coordination with the appropriate substantive divisions of the United Nations Secretariat in New York, with other organs and regional commissions of the United Nations as well as with the specialized agencies. Moreover, every effort has been made to avoid overlapping with other international organizations operating in the region, and to this end, in March 1961, the Executive Secretary of ECLA, the Secretary-General of the Organization of American States (OAS), and the President of the Interamerican Development Bank (IDB) concluded an agreement (referred to hereunder as the tripartite agreement) with a view to undertaking a number of joint programs and activities, thus making better use of all available resources. ECLA also has consultative arrangements with numerous international non-governmental organizations duly accredited to its parent body, the Economic and Social Council.

The basic pattern of work and activities for ECLA and its secretariat was established by member governments during the initial meetings of the Commission. This program has evolved and has greatly expanded, but the central concepts motivating the work have remained essentially the same, namely, that dynamic development policies and programs are required in order to accelerate Latin America's economic growth from within, and that to be really effective, these policies, plans, and programs must be based on facts and systematic

analysis of national economies and on a correct interpretation of the process and prospects of growth. Thus, the early fact-finding studies on individual countries and on the region as a whole and, similarly, the often pioneering and increasingly comprehensive investigations on the different sectors of the economy, have led by logical steps to a program geared more and more to the rendering of practical assistance to governments in relation to economic and social development planning and all aspects of regional economic integration.

In response to numerous requests by member governments, the ECLA secretariat began in 1959 to send advisory groups to those countries interested in creating or improving their economic development planning and policy-making machinery. Under the terms of the tripartite agreement, the advisory group program has become a joint ECLA/OAS/IDB venture, with ECLA acting as the executing agency.

But while studies, investigations, advisory services, and training programs have assisted and continue to aid governments, perhaps the greatest impact of ECLA's activities has been felt in the field of multi-lateral trade and economic integration. In this respect, ECLA has played a leading role in the development of both the Central American Economic Integration Program and the Latin American Free-Trade Association, which constitute very important steps in the gradual creation of the Latin American Common Market that ECLA has long been advocating as an essential basis for an accelerated and largely self-sustaining economic growth.

MEMBERSHIP AND ORGANIZATION

The twenty-five members of the Commission are: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, France, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, the Netherlands, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United Kingdom, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. British Guiana and British Honduras or Belize, are associate members. As in the case of the other regional commissions, provision has been made for inviting any non-member of ECLA which is a member of the United Nations (and also the Federal Republic of Germany and Switzerland) to participate in a consultative capacity in discussions on any matter of particular concern to it.

The Headquarters of the Commission are located at Santiago, where a specially designed building is under construction to house permanently the ECLA secretariat and other United Nations and specialized agencies offices established in Chile. The ECLA secretariat is headed by an Executive Secretary holding the rank of Under-Secretary of the United Nations. It is organized into divisions of: economic development and research, industrial development, trade policy, social affairs, statistics and administration, together with a Joint ECLA/FAO

Agriculture Division and special programs on energy and transport. A Technical Assistance Coordinating Unit was established in 1962 within the Executive Office.

A branch office servicing Mexico, Central America, Panama, and the Caribbean countries was established in Mexico City in 1952, and a small ECLA office to deal with projects involving Colombia, Ecuador, Venezuela, and British Guiana is to be opened shortly in Bogota. The ECLA secretariat also maintains liaison offices in Washington and Montevideo; through the latter, technical assistance is rendered to the Latin American Free-Trade Association. Moreover, in conjunction with the Brazilian *Banco Nacional do Desenvolvimento Economico* (BNDE), a joint ECLA/BNDE Economic Development Center was founded in Rio de Janeiro, in July 1960, to carry out training activities and research on economic problems in that country.

SESSIONS

The first four sessions of the Commission were held annually: in June 1948, Santiago, Chile; in May-June 1949, Havana, Cuba; in June 1950, Montevideo, Uruguay; and in May-June 1951, Mexico City, Mexico. Thereafter the Commission has usually met every two years. The fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, and ninth sessions took place respectively, in the following Latin American capitals: in April 1953, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil; in August-September 1955, Bogota, Colombia; in May 1957, La Paz, Bolivia; in May 1959, Panama City, Panama; and in May 1961, Santiago, Chile. Although the tenth session was originally scheduled to be held in Buenos Aires, it was later decided to convene it in May 1963 in Mar del Plata, Argentina.

In alternate years the Committee of the Whole—which has the same membership as the Commission—usually holds a brief two- or three-day meeting at ECLA's Headquarters to review the progress of work under way and to prepare the report which is submitted annually to the Economic and Social Council. The Committee of the Whole has also held four extraordinary meetings.

STRUCTURE

The Commission has established two permanent bodies to meet special needs as its work progressed: the Central American Economic Cooperation Committee and the Trade Committee. These subsidiary bodies have in turn established subcommittees or working groups on a standing or temporary basis in accordance with the requirements of their activities.

INITIAL STUDIES AND CURRENT ECONOMIC ANALYSIS

Since little factual information was available to ECLA in its early years, its first task was to obtain adequate data on the economic con-

ditions in the region as a whole and in the individual countries. Starting in 1949 and up to 1961 this type of work was principally concentrated around the annual *Economic Survey of Latin America* prepared and published by ECLA's secretariat. Complementary to the annual *Survey* is the *Economic Bulletin for Latin America*, first published in 1955 and issued twice yearly since then. The *Statistical Supplement* which has been a feature of the *Bulletin* since 1958, was published as a separate volume in 1960 and 1961 and on a twice-yearly basis thereafter.

In the annual surveys and other studies, the need for speeding up Latin America's internal economic development through profound structural reforms has been repeatedly emphasized. This, in the final analysis, is an urgent social need, all the more so now since this region's rate of demographic growth is among the highest in the world, while its overall production, its purchasing power, and its traditional exports are lagging behind the needs and expectations of the population.

In accordance with the OAS/ECLA/IDB tripartite agreement, the annual *Economic Survey* was prepared as a joint project in 1962, with OAS acting as executing agency. The *Survey* thus produced was of a purely descriptive and objective nature, each organization being free to publish independently its own analytical appraisal of the current economic situation.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND RELATED PROBLEMS

Since the economic progress of Latin America and the raising of the standards of living of its population are the basic aims of ECLA, the secretariat has devoted a great deal of effort to the analysis of the process of economic and social development and the factors hindering its satisfactory and balanced growth.

A report issued in 1949, the *Economic Development of Latin America and its Principal Problems*, was the first to discuss those questions. It was followed by two studies entitled *Theoretical and Practical Problems of Economic Growth* (1951) and *Introduction to the Techniques of Programming* (1953). Later, at the request of OAS, the ECLA secretariat prepared a report on *International Cooperation in a Latin American Development Policy*, which was submitted to the Interamerican Conference of Ministers of Finance held in 1954 in Brazil. Besides recommending the creation of an Interamerican Development Bank, the report contained a number of concrete proposals stressing the urgent need to combine well-planned internal structural reforms with ample technical and financial assistance from external sources, all within a long-range policy of international cooperation similar to that subsequently embodied in the Alliance for Progress program adopted at Punta del Este in 1961.

In 1954 also, a *Study of Foreign Capital in Latin America* was issued. In 1961, the ECLA secretariat brought up to date its analysis on the basic internal and external economic problems of Latin America by publishing *Economic Development, Planning and International Co-operation*, and by later preparing a comprehensive study on the economic and social development of Latin America since the end of the Second World War.

Together with OAS and IDB, ECLA cosponsored the Latin American Seminar on Development Planning and the Consultations on Economic and Social Development Planning in Latin America, held at ECLA's headquarters in 1962. These meetings brought together high-ranking experts from member states and international organizations, including those linked to the implementation of the Punta del Este Charter.

Other ECLA activities of importance to economic development planning efforts have been in the fiscal field. Three workshops, organized by ECLA in conjunction with the Bureau of Technical Assistance Operations (BTAO), the Division of Public Administration, and the Fiscal and Financial Branch of the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, and designed to improve knowledge of modern budget techniques and to promote an exchange of views among senior budget officials in the region, have been held. A special study group, set up in 1959 within ECLA's secretariat, analyzed the problems of inflation in relation to economic development. And, further, ECLA, having always emphasized in its studies and reports the need to increase Latin America's internal capitalization efforts through improvements in the administration of tax programs and by tax reform, organized, together with OAS and IDB, a joint tax program, under the auspices of which a regional conference on tax administration problems was held at Buenos Aires in 1961. This was followed by a conference on fiscal policy, held at ECLA's headquarters in 1962, under the same tripartite sponsorship.

Valuable experience in the field of development planning has also been gathered through the series of country studies prepared by ECLA as part of its work on analysis and projections of economic development begun in 1953. Apart from the report on the *Economic Development of Ecuador* which appeared prior to that year, country studies issued by ECLA have covered Brazil (1955), Colombia (1955), Bolivia (1957), Argentina (1958), Panama (1959), El Salvador (1959), Honduras (1961), and those on Guatemala and Nicaragua are nearing completion. This series also included a study on the *Industrial Development of Peru* (1959). The findings in these studies led the Commission to conclude that the next stage of work was to provide direct technical assistance to countries which so requested it in connection with their development planning efforts.

Advisory Groups. As already noted, the requests of member governments brought about the establishment in 1959 of the advisory groups program, organized jointly by ECLA and BTAO, with the active collaboration of the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), and, since 1961, of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and other specialized agencies. The first such groups were sent in 1959 to Colombia and Cuba. The group in Cuba completed its technical assignment in 1960 while a new group began operating that same year in Bolivia. In 1961, small teams of experts forming the nucleus of an advisory group were detailed to Chile and Venezuela. In both Bolivia and Colombia the groups assisted the respective government planning boards in the preparation of comprehensive development plans which are now being implemented.

The first joint advisory group organized under the 1961 OAS/ECLA/IDB tripartite agreement was sent to Haiti in November of that year. The next was assigned to Uruguay and others were scheduled to operate in Central America and Panama, Paraguay, and Peru.

Training Activities. Because of the growing need for personnel qualified in economic and social development planning, the ECLA/BTAO economic development training program, initiated in 1952, was re-organized and expanded in 1961, and was further amplified with the creation the following year of the *Latin American Institute for Economic and Social Planning*, which is now entrusted with the execution of the program.

Thanks to the financial assistance of the United Nations Special Fund, and IDB, which allotted respectively, \$3 and \$1 million for the first five years of operations of the Institute and, through the fellowship facilities furnished under the technical assistance programs of the United Nations and of other international organizations, the average number of economists, sociologists, statisticians, agronomists, physicians, other Latin American professionals, and government officials annually attending the Santiago courses has increased fourfold, from approximately twenty in the earlier years of the training program to about eighty in 1962.

The annual course lasts eight months, the first four being devoted to general economic development programming, while the balance is dedicated to specialized training in sectoral aspects of programming such as industry, public investment and public works, transport, budget, and finance. In collaboration with FAO, ILO, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), and the World Health Organization (WHO), the Institute has taken steps to provide regular courses in agricultural, manpower, educational, and public health programming.

A three-month training course dealing with integral planning of

education, which congregated top educators from fifteen Latin American countries, was held in the latter part of 1962 at Santiago under the joint auspices of the Institute, ILO, and the United States Agency for International Development (AID). Almost simultaneously, but in this case in collaboration with WHO's regional office—the Pan American Sanitary Bureau—the Institute sponsored a similar course to help train key health officials from nineteen countries of the area in development planning methods and techniques.

In addition, a grant from the Ford Foundation is helping to pave the way for the Institute's work in relation to natural resources.

Another ECLA activity closely related to training was the sponsorship in 1960, with UNESCO and OAS, of a mission of experts to study the teaching of economics in Latin American universities.

Social Aspects of Economic Development. ECLA's program in the social field is concerned mainly with the broad question of balanced economic and social growth and with the problems of adaptation of Latin American society, in both rural and urban areas, to the new functions required by its economic development. ECLA, particularly through the Social Affairs Division of its secretariat, not only investigates and analyzes the social problems inherent in economic development but also carries out a number of activities with the aim of finding practical solutions to them. In this respect, it organizes specialized meetings, provides advisory services, and helps to create or maintain, with its technical assistance, research and training centers. The initial study in this field was the *Social Conditions of Economic Development*, which was considered by the sixth session of the Commission in 1955.

ECLA is one of the main channels through which Latin America both requests and receives collaboration from the Economic and Social Council and its subsidiary bodies, such as the Population and Social Commissions. Thus, for example, ECLA has studied the problems of urbanization, especially those arising from the large-scale migratory movement from rural to urban areas, which is greatly affecting Latin American cities. A seminar on this subject, organized jointly by the United Nations Bureau of Social Affairs (BSA), ECLA, and UNESCO, with the collaboration of ILO and OAS, was held in July 1959 at ECLA's headquarters. ECLA also cooperated with OAS and BSA in organizing the meetings of experts on financing of housing in Latin America held in 1955 and 1957. Together with the United Nations Statistical Office, BTAO, BSA, the Inter-American Statistical Institute (IASI), ECE, and the Government of Denmark, ECLA cosponsored a Seminar on Housing Statistics and Programs held in September 1962 in Copenhagen.

Demographic studies occupy an increasingly important place in ECLA's activities, particularly in view of the close working collabora-

tion established with the Latin American Demographic Center (CELADE), which was set up in 1957 in Santiago under the auspices of the United Nations, the Government of Chile, and the Population Council Incorporated. In general, the joint program being carried out by ECLA and CELADE aims at the progressive coverage of Latin America's demographic situation by means of country studies. A provisional summary of the salient demographic features of the region was submitted at ECLA's ninth session and estimates of population trends and structure are included periodically in the *Statistical Supplement* of ECLA's *Economic Bulletin*. In connection with the world-wide program of demographic censuses promoted by the United Nations, ECLA, besides participating in the Population Seminar sponsored by the United Nations in 1955, also helped to organize the Seminar on the Evaluation and Utilization of Population Census Data, held in late 1959 at ECLA's headquarters, under the joint auspices of United Nations, ECLA, CELADE, and IASI.

ECLA's work in the social field gained new impetus in 1960 when it sponsored, together with UNESCO, BTAO, and BSA, an Expert Working Group on Aspects of Social Development. In 1962, at Santiago, ECLA sponsored jointly with UNESCO, BSA, and OAS, and with the cooperation of ILO and FAO, the Conference on Education and Economic and Social Development in Latin America, which was attended by some 300 participants, including the ministers of education of most Latin American countries and almost 200 observers from other regions and international organizations.

ECLA's secretariat also collaborated in the Meeting of Experts on the Development of Information Media in Latin America, held in 1961 at Santiago under UNESCO's sponsorship.

Another important aspect of ECLA's work in the social field has been the coordination of activities relating to problems of skilled manpower, through the Inter-Agency Working Party on Skilled Manpower in Latin America set up in 1959. This Working Party, which now consists of representatives of ECLA, ILO, UNESCO, OAS, FAO, and the Inter-Governmental Committee for European Migration (ICEM), has held several meetings in Santiago, Washington, and Geneva. It serves as a clearing-house for information on skilled manpower and training activities of the participating agencies; it is also helping to develop a methodology for the formulation of manpower policy in its broadest sense, with a view to facilitating its integration within economic and social development programs.

ECLA's studies and activities in the social field have demonstrated the magnitude and complexity of the problems involved and have paved the way for the next stage of the work, namely, that of formulating techniques and methods of planning of the various social sectors.

Industrial Development. ECLA has always directed an important part of its research toward Latin America's industrial development problems. At the early stages, studies were made of sectors of industry with a view to analyzing the technico-economic aspects of production. These studies included: *Labour Productivity of the Cotton Textile Industry in Five Latin American Countries* (1951); *Study of the Iron and Steel Industry in Latin America* (1954); *Possibilities for the Development of the Paper and Pulp Industry of Latin America* (1953); *Pulp and Paper Prospects in Latin America* (1955); and *Problems of Steel-Making and Transforming Industries in Latin America* (1957). Some of these and later studies explored the development prospects for a given industry in one or more Latin American countries, taking into account their markets, the probable trends of national demand, and the investment effort needed to reach the production targets derived from the estimated growth of the markets.

In certain instances, once the basic industry studies had been completed, meetings of experts followed which reviewed the findings and made recommendations. Two such meetings were held for the steel industry, and one for the pulp and paper industry, the latter leading to the setting up in 1955 of the ECLA/FAO/BTAO Pulp and Paper Advisory Group, which has explored the prospects for the industry in a number of Latin American countries. The most recent studies in this particular field were completed in 1962 and deal with timber trends in Latin America and with the current situation and future prospects for the production, trade, and demand for cellulose products, particularly pulp and paper. On the other hand, the meetings of experts on the steel industry paved the way for the creation, in 1959, of the Latin American Iron and Steel Institute, which is actively promoting closer regional coordination in this key industry.

Very broad prospects for accelerating the industrialization process in Latin America have been opened up by multilateral agreements such as the Central American Economic Integration Program and the Latin American Free-Trade Association conceived and developed with ECLA's technical assistance. Thus, many of ECLA's more recent industrial studies have explored the practical possibilities of regional cooperation with a view to promoting improved utilization of all existing resources. Examples of this approach are the studies on the chemical industry, the metallurgical, metal-transforming, and electro-mechanical industries, and on railway equipment. Together with other studies under way, they constitute valuable contributions to the industrial inventory of the region.

Other work in progress responds to the need for a better understanding of certain problems which hinder industrial development. The first in a new series of studies was published in 1962 with the title *The manufacture of industrial machinery and equipment. 1. Basic equipment in Brazil*. Studies of this kind have also been carried out

with regard to heavy industrial equipment in Argentina and Chile while another covered the machine-tools industry in Brazil. Brazil is using the ECLA studies as the basis for policy decisions in relation to its industrial programs. ECLA has also undertaken a study of technological research in Latin America, another on economies of scale in industrial programming and has carried out case studies in Argentina, Brazil, and Chile concerning the industrial entrepreneur.

Still another facet of ECLA's work was the meeting convened jointly by ECLA and ILO in October 1962 to discuss Productivity and Training of Management Personnel in Latin America. Representatives of governments, labor unions, and private enterprise participated.

Energy and Water Resources. If economic development in Latin America is to proceed at an adequate pace, the energy sector must be strengthened. A pioneer study of current and estimated future production and consumption of energy was published in 1957. Its findings led to the Latin American Electric Power Seminar held in Mexico City in July-August 1961, organized under the joint auspices of ECLA, BTAO, the Resources and Transport Economics Branch of the United Nations Secretariat, and the Government of Mexico. This Seminar, which was attended by over 160 leading Latin American and international experts, was followed, in 1962, by two smaller meetings of experts.

Because the rational use of water resources for both industrial and agricultural purposes is of such importance, ECLA's secretariat has undertaken, with BTAO, a number of water resources survey missions. Those for Chile and Ecuador led the respective governments to prepare projects for the improvement and expansion of the national networks of hydrometric and hydrometeorological stations subsequently carried out with the financial assistance of the United Nations Special Fund. Missions of the same sort have also been sent to Venezuela and northern Patagonia (Argentina) and preliminary missions to Bolivia and Colombia. The Governments of Argentina, Peru, and the Central American countries have also requested missions of this type and steps have been taken to meet the growing demand for these services.

Agriculture. The agricultural problems of Latin America have been under constant review by the Commission and its secretariat. A substantial part of the annual *Economic Survey* of the region has traditionally been devoted to the analysis of agricultural products and the overall agricultural development. Moreover, the country studies on economic development have, of course, included chapters on agricultural activities such as land utilization, production, and exports and imports. Considerable attention has also been devoted to the status

and prospects of agricultural commodities in Latin American regional economic integration schemes. The most recent study on this subject was submitted in 1961 under the title *The Role of Agriculture in the Latin American Agreements for the Formation of Common Markets and Free-Trade Zones*. In the same year the Commission also considered a Joint ECLA/FAO Division paper, *An Agricultural Policy to Expedite the Economic Development of Latin America*, which stressed the need to carry out well conceived and properly executed programs of land reform.

Country studies on livestock production have been completed for Brazil, Colombia, Cuba, Mexico, Uruguay, and Venezuela.

Among the first agricultural studies undertaken jointly by ECLA and FAO was that on the *Selective Expansion of Agricultural Production in Latin America*, published in 1957. A general survey on *Coffee in Latin America* was undertaken at approximately the same time and has thus far examined in detail the problems of coffee production in Brazil, Colombia and El Salvador. For consideration at the tenth session of the Commission, a special study on the agricultural development of Latin America during the period 1945-60 was prepared.

Statistics. Work done in the field of statistics by the Commission and its secretariat has been of paramount importance. Since the primary sources of data within each country are national statistical services, increasing attention has been given to advising governments about the scope of their statistical programs and the technical requirements for adequate standards. Seminars have been organized, usually with assistance from BTAO, the United Nations Statistical Office, and IASI, on such subjects as national income estimates (Rio de Janeiro, 1959) and industrial statistics (Santiago, 1960) as well as on subjects already mentioned. In addition, teams of statistical advisors, sometimes organized in conjunction with advisory groups, have assisted governments in bringing about necessary improvements.

Special attention is being devoted to statistics concerning social conditions. Sample household surveys, designed to collect information on a wide range of individual economic activities and conditions have been given priority as well as investigation into the complex factors involved in levels of living, such as housing, education, consumption patterns, family stability, and migration. The secretariat completed in 1961 the first part of a study entitled *Comparative Prices and the Purchasing Power of Currencies in Selected Latin American Countries*. This work, which covered ten countries, is being extended to cover the remaining countries of the region, together with an investigation into labor costs.

Transport. Questions relating to transport are of vital importance to economic development as well as to any regional integration

scheme, for instance, to the Central American Economic Integration Program. Other relevant ECLA efforts have been concentrated on work required as part of the earlier country studies and on the transport aspects of the advisory groups program. Because of the magnitude of the task, OAS, under the terms of the tripartite agreement, is providing experts to assist the ECLA secretariat in an overall study of transport problems in the Latin American region.

Trade and Regional Integration. The expansion of trade with other parts of the world and within the Latin American region itself has been a major preoccupation of ECLA since its inception. Ground work for action in this field was laid in the relevant chapters of the annual *Economic Survey*, but soon specialized studies on this sector of the economy began to appear. These have included a *Study of Trade between Latin America and Europe* (1952); the *Study on the Prospects of Inter-Latin American Trade—Southern Zone of the Region* (1953); *Central American Economic Integration: Development and Prospects* (1956); *Inter-Latin American Trade: Current Problems* (1957); *Study of Inter-Latin American Trade* (1958); *The Latin American Common Market* (1959); *Foreign Private Investments in the Latin American Free-Trade Area* (1960); and *Multilateral Economic Cooperation in Latin America* (1961). In addition, though not published in printed form, ECLA's secretariat has prepared numerous other studies and reports at the request of member governments and regional groupings on problems such as customs, nomenclature, trade statistics, and payments and credits.

The need for Latin American countries to pool efforts to effect the gradual formation of a regional common market has been underlined in ECLA's studies practically from the very beginning. The first concrete step in the realization of this idea was taken in 1951, when the Commission established the Central American Economic Cooperation Committee as one of its permanent subsidiary bodies, in compliance with the wishes of the Governments of Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua. Since 1959 the Government of Panama, which had been attending meetings of the Central American Committee as an observer, has participated as a member. The main functions of the Committee are: to advise governments on measures for the gradual and progressive integration of the economies of the Central American isthmus and for the coordination of national programs of economic development; to determine the investigations and studies to be made in relation to the integration program; and to coordinate and channel the technical assistance services under the program. Subcommittees dealing with specific aspects of the program have been set up as the need arises.

The studies and investigations for the Economic Cooperation Committee are carried out by the Mexico Office of the ECLA secretariat,

in cooperation with the governments of Central America, and by experts from the United Nations technical assistance programs. Close contact is also maintained with IASI and OAS, and with the Organization of Central American States (ODECA).

From the outset, efforts have been devoted to setting up basic instruments for the promotion of free trade among the Central American countries and of a uniform tariff toward the rest of the world. In June 1958 a Multilateral Treaty on Central American Free Trade and Economic Integration was signed, together with an Agreement on Central American Integration Industries, a Central American Agreement on Road Traffic, and a Central American Agreement on Uniform Road Signs and Signals. In September 1959, the member countries signed an Agreement on the Equalization of Import Duties and Charges, followed, in December 1960, by the signature of the General Treaty on Central American Economic Integration, the Protocol to the Agreement on Equalization of Import Duties, and the Constitutive Agreement of the Central American Economic Integration Bank. Yet another step was taken in 1962 with the signing of the Central American Agreement on Incentives for Industrial Development and, also, of a new Protocol relating to the equalization of tariffs.

Through these treaties, protocols, and agreements, a legal basis was laid for the achievement of the main objectives of the central American Economic Integration Program: free trade has been established for most of the member countries' products, and uniform customs duties will come into force within five years as the common market becomes fully operative; integrated industrial development has been reinforced by the financial aid of the Integration Bank; and agricultural economy and other basic sectors will receive better coordination. The Central American common market is thus now well under way, and it is interesting to note that trade among its member countries almost doubled in 1961 as compared with 1958, and has continued to rise.

ECLA's secretariat cooperates very closely with the organs established by the General Treaty on Central American Economic Integration and continues rendering technical assistance to the Central American governments in other aspects of their integration efforts. Activities carried out in this connection during 1962 included meetings dealing with grain supplies, road networks, industrial research and technology, and public administration and housing. A report requested by the Government of Panama on the possible incorporation of that country into the Central American Common Market or into the Latin American Free-Trade Association was also completed in 1962. In October of the same year, ECLA and UNESCO co-sponsored the Seminar on Social Research and Rural Life in Central America, held in Mexico.

The Central American Economic Integration Bank began opera-

tions in 1961 with a capital of \$16 million. Its headquarters are at Tegucigalpa, Honduras. Its first credit operations were to finance the establishment of several new industries that will be servicing the needs of the participating countries. The Bank has also formulated investment plans for basic sectors of the Central American regional economies, with a view to fulfilling its obligations with regard to the integrated development of that area. A Central American Advanced School for Public Administration was set up under the Economic Integration Program in 1954 at San Jose, Costa Rica, to train high-level public administrators. In addition, a Central American Research Institute for Industry was established in 1956 in Guatemala City for the investigation of resources and their rational utilization. In 1959 an agreement was signed whereby the United Nations Special Fund contributed \$900,000 to the Institute, thus strengthening its research program and enabling it to play a more significant role in the industrialization process of the member countries.

Publications relating to the Central American Economic Integration Program include: the *Reports of the Economic Cooperation Committee*, which are issued annually, and the *Report of the Central American Seminar on Agricultural Credit* (1953); studies on *Transport in Central America* (1953); *Central American Uniform Customs Nomenclature* (1955); *Tax Policy and Economic Development in Central America* (1957); and the *Central American Statistical Compendium* (1957). Central America's manpower questions are covered in the study *Human Resources of Central America, Panama and Mexico, 1950-1980*, published in 1960.

Toward a Latin American Common Market. Although the initial concrete steps toward regional economic integration were taken in the Central American area, ECLA's ultimate objective has always been the creation of a common market encompassing all the countries of Latin America and designed so as to promote trade within the region as well as with other parts of the world. For this purpose, and in order to speed up and expand the work undertaken earlier, ECLA, in 1955, created the Trade Committee.

The Trade Committee, at its first meeting in November 1956, provided for the establishment of two subsidiary groups: the first, called the Central Banks' Working Group, was asked to study and suggest ways and means of setting up a Latin American multilateral payments system that would facilitate trade between the countries of the region while also promoting its expansion.

The second subsidiary body, the Working Group on the Regional Market, met in 1958 and in 1959; it made detailed recommendations concerning the principles, purposes and structure for the proposed Latin American common market. At this stage, ECLA's secretariat con-

vened a number of private meetings of Latin American government officials responsible for trade policy in some of the region's more important trading countries.

These meetings laid the groundwork for the Latin American Free-Trade Association and Latin American Free-Trade Zone later established under the provisions of the Treaty of Montevideo, signed in February 1960 by Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay, countries which encompass about three-quarters of Latin America's total population and also of its income. Colombia and Ecuador, in 1961, also acceded to the Montevideo Treaty—which entered into force in June of that year. The first conference of the contracting parties took place from July to December 1961. The annual conferences have received, as has the Standing Executive Committee, regular assistance from ECLA's secretariat in the formulation of norms and procedures for tariff negotiations and, during the negotiations themselves, help in the drafting of the rules of procedure, the determination of criteria for establishing the origin of goods, the definition of charges to be taken into account as a starting point for initial negotiations, and the establishment of criteria for applying the special measures provided for in the Treaty in favor of countries at relatively less advanced stages of economic development.

ECLA, in May 1961, took official cognizance of the Montevideo Treaty, noting with satisfaction that it followed the main lines laid down by the Commission for the establishment of the broader Latin American common market, and thereby constituted the best instrument currently available for the progressive achievement of this end. Therefore, after reviewing developments in the Central American Economic Integration Program, the Commission recommended to the secretariat that it investigate ways and means of eventually linking the Latin American Free-Trade Association and the Central American Common Market, while at the same time assisting governments not yet members of either regional grouping to study their possible participation in these multilateral mechanisms.

The emphasis and priorities placed on ECLA's efforts in relation to Latin America's economic integration have by no means lessened its interest in expanding and intensifying the region's trade with the rest of the world. With respect to the first task, ECLA's secretariat, apart from continuing its assistance to the Central American Economic Integration Program, presented in 1962 to the members of the Latin American Free-Trade Association a series of concrete proposals aimed at accelerating and strengthening the latter's operations. These covered: the establishment of automatic quantitative reductions and elimination of tariffs; the definition of ways and means to put into practice the principle of reciprocity embodied in the Montevideo Treaty, linking it with a multilateral payments system created with international financial assistance; the establishment of sound bases for

agreements concerning industrial integration; and, finally, the creation, with international assistance, of financial and technical organs to promote the regional common market and provide systematic help to Latin American private initiative.

In relation to the second task, ECLA sponsored a meeting of experts on trade policy in 1962 in Santiago, to discuss Latin America's trade relations and problems with the rest of the world, particularly those arising from the operations and policies of the European common market. This meeting was followed by the Round Table Discussions on Trade Policy, attended by government representatives to the Standing Executive Committee of the Latin American Free-Trade Association. The main recommendation formulated by the meeting of experts was that Latin American governments should agree to establish a special high-level intergovernmental body that could speak on their collective behalf before similar regional groupings that exist in other parts of the world.

Economic Commission for Africa (ECA)

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE COMMISSION

A proposal to set up an Economic Commission for Africa was introduced in the United Nations General Assembly in 1957. It was sponsored by twenty nations and adopted by the Assembly on November 26. The Commission was eventually established by a unanimous decision of the Economic and Social Council on April 29, 1958.

FUNCTIONS

The tasks assigned to the Commission are: to promote and facilitate concerted action for the economic and social development of Africa; to maintain and strengthen the economic relations of African countries and territories, both among themselves and with other countries of the world; to undertake or sponsor investigations, research, and studies of economic and technological problems and developments; to collect, evaluate, and disseminate economic, technological, and statistical information; and to assist in the formulation and development of coordinated policies in promoting economic and technological development in the region.

The Commission performs such advisory services as the countries and territories of the region may request. In carrying out its functions, the Commission is authorized to deal as appropriate with the social aspects of economic development and the interrelationship of economic and social factors. ECA is the only regional commission whose original terms of reference contain specific mention of the social aspects of economic development.

It is also the duty of the Commission to assist the Economic and Social Council, at its request, by taking increasing responsibility within the region in connection with economic problems, specifically problems in the field of technical assistance. In its work the ECA takes measures to maintain necessary liaison and appropriate cooperation with other organs of the United Nations and with the specialized agencies, giving special attention to the avoidance of a duplication of effort.

MEMBERSHIP

The Commission, as of December 31, 1962, had thirty-seven members: thirty-three independent African member states of the United Nations and four European states that have responsibilities in Africa. The membership thus was: Algeria, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo (Brazzaville), Congo (Leopoldville), Dahomey, Ethiopia, France, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Liberia, Libya, Madagascar, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, Niger, Nigeria, Portugal, Rwanda, Republic of South Africa, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Spain, Sudan, Tanganyika, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, United Arab Republic, United Kingdom, and Upper Volta.

The Commission's associate members were: Basutoland, Bechuanaland and Swaziland (as a group), Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Gambia, and Kenya and Zanzibar (as a group).

According to the Commission's terms of reference, a European state ceases to be a member upon the loss of its territorial responsibility in Africa; thus, with the independence of Somalia on July 1, 1960, Italy's territorial responsibilities in Africa came to an end, and in 1962, Belgium's membership ended with the independence of Rwanda and Burundi.

Newly-independent African states, upon admission to the United Nations, have the right to full membership in ECA. The number of associate members thus changes with the corresponding increase of full members. Associate members are entitled to participate without vote in all meetings of the Commission. They are eligible to be appointed as members of any committee or any subordinate body of the Commission and to hold office in such bodies.

HEADQUARTERS

On April 29, 1958, the Economic and Social Council chose Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, as ECA's headquarters. The Commission may also establish subregional offices as it finds necessary and two are planned, one for Niamey, in Niger, and one in Morocco, at Tangier.

By the end of 1962, the secretariat of ECA, whose Executive Secretary is Robert K. A. Gardiner, of Ghana, had a total staff of 240, of whom twenty-three were working with the Commission as regional

advisers under the United Nations program of technical assistance or provided by the Food and Agriculture Organization in the Joint ECA/FAO Agricultural Division. There are eighty-five professionals in posts at ECA.

PROGRAM OF WORK

The work of ECA is determined by the special needs and circumstances of the African countries, virtually all of which are in the process of development. Their general development problems are similar to those of the less developed regions in Asia, Latin America, the Middle East, and elsewhere, but they also have special problems which do not exist elsewhere. To tackle these problems has been one of the main concerns of the Commission.

Training. The lack of trained and skilled personnel in Africa imposes responsibilities upon the Commission in the general area of education and training. Member and associate member states of ECA nominate candidates for training in New York as economists after which ECA and United Nations Headquarters collaborate in selecting the candidates best fitted for taking the courses, which are of nine months duration and given annually.

The Commission has an in-service training program in economic and statistical matters at its headquarters in Addis Ababa, and collaborates with ECE and ECAFE in an in-service training program in these two fields as well as in public administration. The Commission also sponsors annual summer courses lasting six to eight weeks for African students of economics in their pre-graduation year.

The Commission has sponsored several training centers for statisticians within the African region. Here again, the governments in Africa have cooperated in nominating suitable students, and the United Nations Bureau of Technical Assistance Operations (BTAO) has helped to provide the necessary financial resources for the centers.

The secretariat of the Commission serves as a clearing-house for fellowships offered by member states of the United Nations to African students.

Technical Assistance. ECA works in close cooperation with the Expanded Program of Technical Assistance, the United Nations Technical Assistance Program, the Special Fund, and other programs of technical aid to African countries. Country and subregional programs on which advice has been sought from ECA frequently require assistance of a technical nature. An outstanding example is the project for establishment of an African Institute for Economic Development and Planning in which the ECA secretariat has cooperated with UNESCO, ILO, FAO, the expanded program, and especially with the Special Fund, whose aid has been sought in financing the project.

Financing. The Commission's experts have studied the flow of international aid to Africa and their reports have served as a basis for ECA discussions on aid proposals and policies for Africa.

During its fourth session, the Commission adopted a resolution accepting in principle the establishment of an African Development Bank, subject to further investigations to be carried out by a committee of nine member countries. The Committee of Nine will complete its work in 1963 after having held three sessions, conducted consultations with Africans as well as non-African governments and institutions, and after having approved a draft charter for the Bank. The final decision on the charter and location of the Bank will be taken at a meeting of finance or other ministers of ECA member states at Khartoum in June 1963. The new finance institution will serve all African countries and will assist both public and private projects promoting economic development.

Economic Development Planning. The necessity to improve techniques of development planning and project formulation is particularly urgent in Africa. Accordingly, the Commission has put considerable efforts into studies and advisory services in this field. The secretariat has collected and analyzed information on development programs. The results of that analysis were published in the Commission's *Economic Bulletin for Africa*. Several preliminary studies dealing with structural features of African countries, and growth factors in particular, were also prepared.

Since its inception, ECA has also devoted considerable attention to facilities required for training African staff in the field of economic development and planning. The establishment of the African Institute for Economic Development and Planning met with approval at the fourth session of the Commission. The same session decided also that Dakar, Senegal, should be the site of the Institute.

The first meeting of the Standing Committee for the establishment of the Institute, which took place in June 1962 in Dakar, made a number of recommendations concerning the program of activities of the Institute, the timing of these activities, and the preparation of a first-hand appraisal of the financial problems involved. A panel of experts met at the same time as the Committee and designed a preliminary syllabus for the main course of the Institute.

The preparation of teaching material and the pre-selection of students is under way for the first course of the Institute which is scheduled to begin in October 1963.

Trade. A special characteristic of African countries is the virtual lack of intra-African trade. On a per capita basis, African countries trade with each other less than is the case in Latin America,

Asia, or other less developed regions. The promotion of intra-African trade has been a major part of ECA's work.

The impact of the west European economic groupings on African trade and development is continuously kept under review. Studies on trade problems in East and West Africa have been completed, and the first meeting of the ECA Standing Committee on Trade was convened in September 1962. A study on trade of African countries with centrally planned economies was completed in 1962. Analysis of the year-to-year changes in levels and directional patterns of both exports and imports of African countries form part of the regular activities of the secretariat, as does the dissemination of information on current developments in the field of international trade. The Secretariat publishes quarterly a *Foreign Trade Newsletter*. A meeting of African countries was held in July 1962 to study commodity problems facing African countries and to adopt stabilization measures to bring about a check to the downward trend in primary commodity prices.

Agriculture. Since its inception ECA has placed considerable emphasis on agriculture, in which more than three-quarters of the African population are engaged. Close collaboration has been established with FAO through a Joint ECA/FAO Agriculture Division, whose program of work has been directed at improving the economic conditions of agriculture.

Among projects undertaken by the Joint Division have been a seminar on land policies in East and Central Africa, a regional center on meat and livestock marketing, a symposium on wildlife conservation, the fourth Inter-African Conference on Food and Nutrition, held in Cameroon, in 1961, and the Development Center on Agricultural Credit for Africa in May 1962. Such meetings bring together African specialists and administrators in various fields; the lectures, demonstrations, and discussions acquaint participants with improved methods suited to the needs of their countries.

Food consumption levels are being studied in nine countries by ECA, with a view to developing national food balance sheets, and an African timber trend study has been undertaken with FAO to establish current usage of wood and likely future trends as a basis for national forest policies. The Joint ECA/FAO Division publishes quarterly the *Agricultural Economic Bulletin for Africa*.

Statistics. One of the first tasks of the Commission has been to remedy the lack of basic information essential for economic and social development. The first Conference of African Statisticians, held in Addis Ababa in 1959, agreed on a long-term program referred to as the Statistical Survey of Africa. Under this project, all African countries were requested to prepare and carry out a five-year program of

intensive statistical development. Progress made in this project was reviewed by the second Conference of African Statisticians held in Tunis in 1961.

In addition, ECA has temporarily assigned members of its own statistical staff and other experts to work with various governments, has advised on censuses and demographic surveys, and has sponsored several study tours, seminars, and statistical courses, as well as the establishment of subregional training centers.

Three such centers are operating in Accra, Addis Ababa, and Rabat; a fourth is envisaged in Yaoundé, Cameroon. With the exception of the Rabat center, which provides a two-year course at the professional level, these centers train middle level statistical assistants in a one-year academic course. The structure of the training course in these centers consists of basic, technical, laboratory, and project work. A serious effort is made to relate the content of the course to specific conditions in Africa.

The ECA secretariat also acts as a clearing-house for the exchange of statistical data and publishes, quarterly, a *Statistical Newsletter*.

Industry and Transport. Work has started on compiling an inventory of African industries and a manual on the preparation and implementation of investment projects in industry and transport. A comprehensive study on transport problems in West Africa was completed in early 1961 and followed up by a West African transport conference held in Monrovia, Liberia, in 1961. This conference discussed the general lines on which a subregional transport network should be developed and the possibility of standardizing vehicles legislation and traffic signals. A study of transport problems in East Africa was the basis of discussion at an East African transport conference held in 1962.

In the field of air transport, a study is under way to determine the possible economic effects of pooling equipment and maintenance crews among African countries with reciprocal landing rights.

The secretariat in the autumn of 1962 published *Industrial Growth in Africa*, a comprehensive survey of the potentials of Africa's natural resources containing recommendations for subregional cooperation as a basis for industrialization in Africa.

Social Problems. Efforts to promote community development and social welfare are part of the Commission's regular activities. A workshop on community development was held in Addis Ababa, a workshop on family and child welfare in Accra, a workshop on low-cost housing in Tunis, and a meeting of experts on the organization and administration of social welfare services in Abidjan.

Studies on the cooperative movement in Africa, on urbanization, and related subjects were undertaken.

APPRAISAL

At the Commission's fifth session, Robert Gardiner, the Executive Secretary, said that one can already see in ECA the beginnings of an efficient research and analysis organization, as well as a pool of experience and skills upon which individual states can draw for the execution of programs. Africa's economic potential is relatively great. For this reason, the African countries will need to take some hard decisions and apply themselves relentlessly, if they are to make progress along the lines they desire. More important still, they will have to husband their own resources to give proof of their ability not only to absorb external aid but to derive from it optimum benefits. The question of aid, the Executive Secretary declared, brings into prominence the unique role of the Commission for channelling multilateral aid, coordinating bilateral assistance, and helping to determine the role of local contributions to the cost of development.

United Nations Assistance Programs in Behalf of Developing Countries

Programs of technical assistance to the less developed countries through the United Nations and its family of related agencies have been described as a concrete manifestation of the will of the international community to honor a pledge—embodied in the United Nations Charter—to promote the economic and social advancement of all people.

Technical assistance is provided to governments, at their request, by the United Nations and its related agencies through two main types of programs. One is the Expanded Program of Technical Assistance, financed by voluntary contributions from governments which are members of the United Nations family of organizations, the funds being shared among the United Nations and nine of the agencies related to it. The second type of assistance operations are commonly known as regular programs because they are financed from the regular budgets of the organizations concerned. In addition, some governments have received, at their request, technical assistance from the United Nations and its related agencies financed from other sources, either on the basis of full and direct reimbursement from governments or, as in the case of the United Nations, also on the basis of contributions from certain non-governmental organizations. Activities so financed are known as "extra-budgetary operations."

The Expanded Program of Technical Assistance

The first program to have been established jointly by the United Nations and its specialized agencies as an instrument for assisting the

less developed countries was the Expanded Program of Technical Assistance.

Ten international organizations participate in the program: the United Nations itself, the International Labour Organisation (ILO), the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), the World Health Organization (WHO), the International Telecommunication Union (ITU), the World Meteorological Organization (WMO), the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), and the Universal Postal Union (UPU).

The media of assistance under the program may be summed up as the provision of "experts, fellowships, supplies, and equipment." Cutting across this classification, however, are training institutions, regional training centers, seminars, and group study tours, which draw upon the services of experts acting as leaders, instructors, and demonstrators; provide training opportunities for fellows; and, in some cases, use supplies and equipment for teaching or demonstration purposes.

The fields of activity of the program follow broadly the recognized areas of competence of the participating organizations, each of which is responsible for technical operations within its area.

For example, the execution of projects in malaria or tuberculosis control would be the responsibility of WHO, FAO would take over operation of a wheat improvement scheme, and ILO would be the agency concerned with a request for a manpower survey. The operational responsibilities of the United Nations itself are carried out by the Bureau of Technical Assistance Operations, which has special competence in the fields of fiscal, financial, and trade policy matters, industrialization (including small-scale industry), productivity, resource surveys, transport and communications, public administration, statistics, and social welfare.

Since 1950 approximately seventy per cent of the program's resources has been allocated to services of international experts, some eighteen per cent to fellowship awards, and the balance to the provision of equipment.

Operations under the expanded program are financed from voluntary contributions by governments which are members of the United Nations and/or the intergovernmental agencies related to the United Nations. Contributions are announced at an annual pledging conference. Between the first year of operations (1950) and the end of 1962, a total of more than \$350 million had been contributed by some 100 governments. An additional \$50.3 million has been pledged for 1963.

Assistance by the organizations participating in the expanded program is given to the governments of the less developed countries only at their request. The governments themselves specify the assist-

ance they want at annual or, currently biennial, intervals. In 1962 a total of \$51.6 million (of which \$44.6 million was for the field program), was spent on assistance to some 120 countries and territories. The amount of assistance given to any one country in 1962 varied considerably, from \$3 million in India to half a million in Ghana and to just over \$100,000 in Yemen. The volume of assistance to newly-independent African countries has been steadily increasing as their special needs for international technical assistance have been communicated to the United Nations and its related agencies. In 1962 alone, 30.9 per cent of the program's resources were devoted to the African continent, as against 17.9 per cent in 1960.

In 1962 the expanded program sent 2,552 experts, drawn from eighty-five countries, to serve in 114 countries and territories. In the same year, 3,831 fellowship awards were made to the nationals of over 125 countries and territories, and the fellows were placed for training in ninety-six countries.

The distribution of field program expenditures in 1962 among the participating organizations is shown in the following table, together with the corresponding percentages:

**EXPENDITURES ON FIELD PROGRAM
AND SHARES OF PARTICIPATING ORGANIZATIONS**

(Expressed in thousands of US dollars)

	<i>Amount</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
UNTA	8,824	19.8
ILO	4,403	9.9
FAO	10,543	23.6
UNESCO	8,935	20.0
ICAO	1,652	3.7
WHO	7,335	16.4
ITU	957	2.1
WMO	842	1.9
IAEA	1,146	2.6

The regional distribution of project expenditures during 1962 is shown in the following table:

REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF FIELD PROGRAM COSTS

(Expressed in thousands of US dollars)

	<i>Amount</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Africa	13,809	30.9
Asia and the Far East	14,219	32.0
Europe	2,542	5.7
Latin America	9,087	20.4
Middle East	3,293	7.4
Interregional	1,596	3.6

Planning and coordination of the overall program are vested in the Technical Assistance Board (TAB), on which each of the participating organizations is represented. The Board is headed by an Executive Chairman.

To carry out its coordinating functions on the spot, TAB has established field offices in many recipient countries. The field offices are headed by resident representatives who are, at the same time, directors of Special Fund programs. Their functions in respect of the expanded program include overall responsibility for assisting the government in planning each program; the maintenance of contact in all matters between the government, TAB, and the participating organizations; the establishment of liaison with representatives of other aid programs in the country; and various administrative duties on behalf of the expanded program and the individual experts. By the end of 1962, there were some sixty TAB field offices covering over eighty-five countries and territories.

The Technical Assistance Board, which is an intergovernmental body, reports to a standing committee of the Economic and Social Council, the Technical Assistance Committee (TAC). The eighteen governments which sit on the Council are also represented on TAC, along with twelve additional governments elected from among the membership of the United Nations or the specialized agencies. TAC is responsible for approving the program, reviewing its progress, and originating any legislation which governs it.

Participation in the expanded program involves specific obligations of recipient governments. In addition to the responsibility which they incur for providing counterpart personnel for the provision of local transport and other facilities, they must also contribute a lump sum towards the local costs of the experts who have been sent to their countries.

Close coordination between the expanded program and the Special Fund (*see page 253*) is assured by the day-to-day consultations of the Executive Chairman of TAB and the Managing Director of the Fund and their staffs at Headquarters, as well as by their joint representation in the field. The complementary character of the two programs is amply demonstrated by the fact that a considerable number of recommendations made by expanded program experts gave rise to Special Fund projects. In one country alone, no less than five such projects are a direct outgrowth of earlier expanded program activities. At the same time, the two programs have individual characteristics of their own which enable them to provide the diversified assistance required by the recipient countries. The collaboration maintained in the management of the two programs, both at Headquarters and in the field, provides an assurance that a request not meeting the criteria of one program will be re-directed to the other. (Details about the tech-

nical assistance activities of the International Atomic Energy Agency and the specialized agencies are given in Part III of this volume, in the individual chapters on these international organizations.)

United Nations Special Fund

The United Nations Special Fund was created on January 1, 1959, in accordance with a resolution of the General Assembly. By 1962, it had developed into the largest technical cooperation program of the United Nations. The Special Fund assists the less developed countries to accelerate their economic growth by sponsoring projects designed—through pre-investment exploration—to facilitate public or private capital investments. Experience has shown that production and productivity in the low-income countries cannot be raised without substantial capital investment. But investment will not venture into the unknown; it will move freely only when a country's potentials are revealed by preparatory investigation of existing natural and human resources. The Special Fund concentrates on this pre-investment work in the following fields:

(1) Resource surveys and feasibility studies. The purpose of resource surveys is to uncover and define the wealth-producing potentialities of mineral deposits, marine resources, land which can be made fertile with proper use, and rivers which can be controlled for irrigation and which can be harnessed to produce electric power for industry;

(2) Applied research and advisory services to governments in industry and agriculture. In the field of applied research, the Special Fund is helping to set up or strengthen institutions which define industrial potentialities, develop improved manufacturing techniques, design equipment to promote better use of raw materials; and explore possibilities of expansion of markets; and

(3) Manpower training and technological education. The advanced training and educational projects are designed to develop skills for a full utilization of the human resources of the underdeveloped countries. Special Fund assistance in this field concentrates on training instructors and other high-level teachers to produce the most rapid dissemination of technical and professional skills.

Projects assisted by the Special Fund are undertaken at the direct request of the governments concerned. Not only do the recipient governments contribute a major part of the project costs, but they also assume heavy commitments to continue the work after the phase of Special Fund assistance is over. The governments are often helped in the selection and preparation of suitable requests by the Technical Assistance Board resident representatives who also serve as directors of United Nations Special Fund programs in less developed countries.

They may also receive, on occasion, technical guidance from the United Nations and its specialized agencies.

All requests are reviewed in the first instance by the Managing Director of the Special Fund, then by a Consultative Board consisting of the Secretary-General of the United Nations, the President of the World Bank, the Chairman of the Expanded Program of Technical Assistance, and the Managing Director of the Special Fund, and are finally presented for approval to the Governing Council, whose eighteen members represent both the economically more advanced and the less developed countries.

The Governing Council reports annually to the Economic and Social Council, which in turn transmits the report of the Governing Council, together with its own comments, to the General Assembly, where all members of the United Nations review the progress and operations of the Special Fund.

By the end of 1962, the Governing Council had approved a total of 246 projects providing assistance to some seventy-one low-income countries and territories. The estimated cost of the program was some \$500 million. Of this amount the Special Fund had agreed to provide just over \$210 million while the recipient governments themselves had assumed responsibility for the remaining \$290 million.

The projects, averaging a gross cost of \$2 million, require from one to six years for implementation. Ninety-eight of these projects are for natural resource and industrial surveys and feasibility studies; forty-six are for research and advisory services for agriculture and industry, and 102 are to establish or strengthen training programs or technological educational institutes in the developing countries, including three projects for development planning.

The geographical distribution of these projects is as follows: Africa sixty-five, the Americas seventy, Asia and the Far East seventy-one, the Middle East thirty, Europe nine, and intercontinental one.

Though the Special Fund is empowered to engage the services of other agencies, private firms, or individual experts, the projects thus far approved are being implemented by the United Nations or by one of the following specialized agencies: International Labour Organisation, Food and Agriculture Organization, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, the World Bank, World Meteorological Organization, International Civil Aviation Organization, International Telecommunication Union, World Health Organization as well as by the International Atomic Energy Agency.

The Special Fund is financed by voluntary contributions from participating states, announced each year at a pledging conference called by the Secretary-General. Resources for 1962 amounted to more than \$60.2 million pledged by ninety-two governments. The Special Fund also receives voluntary contributions from non-governmental sources.

United Nations Technical Assistance Activities

BUREAU OF TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE OPERATIONS

United Nations technical assistance activities take the form of expert advice and assistance, fellowships, training courses and seminars, pilot projects, and demonstration projects. More recently, however, operations and action have commanded increased attention, especially as regards assistance in the development of Special Fund and other long-range projects.

Another important development has been the steady strengthening of the technical assistance activities undertaken by the regional economic commissions. Besides decentralization of many of the regional technical assistance projects, a number of regional advisers and experts have been attached to the regional secretariats to render advisory services to member countries coming within the geographic jurisdiction of these commissions.

There has been a major increase in the work on natural resources development, statistics, industrial development, and economic planning and programming activities and, finally, in social activities. Much headway has been made in developing integrated projects such as economic surveys and programming, industrial development and productivity, and general economic and advisory services.

During 1962, the United Nations spent a total of \$19.8 million on its technical assistance operations. Of this amount, \$6.0 million came from the regular United Nations budget for aid in the fields of economic development, public administration, social welfare, human rights, narcotics control, and the provision of operational, executive, and administrative personnel; \$8.8 million came from the funds of the expanded program; \$827,000 came from extra-budgetary sources; and \$4.1 million came from the Special Fund.

The 1,253 experts provided by the United Nations in 1962—under the expanded program, the regular program, and under extra-budgetary operations—came from seventy-one countries and served in some ninety-three countries and territories. The 1,191 fellowships awarded by the United Nations in 1962 were granted to nationals of 125 countries for study abroad in seventy-two countries.

The enlarged role of the United Nations in implementing Special Fund projects has resulted in an increase of the impact projects. As of December 31, 1962 there were thirty-seven Special Fund projects for which the United Nations was responsible.

PROVISION OF OPERATIONAL,

EXECUTIVE, AND ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL

In 1958, during its thirteenth session, the General Assembly adopted a resolution initiating a program now known as "OPEX," or the pro-

gram for the provision of operational, executive, and administrative personnel. This action had followed two years of discussion in the Economic and Social Council and the Assembly, beginning in 1956 when the Secretary-General drew attention to the needs of many governments, particularly those in newly independent countries, for experts to fill executive and operational posts in their administrative machinery, as well as for advisers.

The OPEX program thus supplements the main programs of technical assistance—which provide experts whose role is advisory and who remain officials of either the United Nations or a specialized agency—by arranging for the temporary appointment of experts to fill government posts, as the servants of governments. Governments contribute to the program by paying each OPEX officer the salary usually paid to a national for the same post. The United Nations supplements the local salary by a stipend and other allowances calculated to bring the total remuneration each officer receives up to the level of what he would have received as an international expert employed by the United Nations. Each OPEX officer is under an express obligation, with the cooperation of the government, to train a national to succeed him in his post as rapidly as possible. A feature of this program is that experts are not confined to United Nations fields of activity, but cover the fields of the specialized agencies also.

The program began experimentally in 1959 and continued on the same basis (with a small increase in funds) throughout 1960. During the fifteenth session of the Assembly in 1960, the Secretary-General was able to report a substantial degree of success, and a large number of requests unsatisfied for lack of funds. The Assembly therefore placed the program on a “continuing basis” with annual allocation of \$850,000. This sum has been available for each of the years 1961, 1962, and 1963.

As with all new programs, there were initial administrative and recruitment difficulties which resulted in relatively few appointments in 1959 and 1960. By 1961, thirty-seven officers were in the field for all or part of that year and thirty continued into 1962 when the rate of appointments began to rise sharply. During 1962, sixty-eight officers had either continued from earlier years or been newly appointed and sixty of them were still in the field at the end of the year.

In 1962, the Economic and Social Council, after considering reports from the Secretary-General, noted the importance of making the OPEX program more fully responsive to existing needs. During the subsequent seventeenth session of the Assembly, however, the Technical Assistance Committee (TAC) was requested to undertake a review of all technical assistance programs financed under the United Nations regular budget—including OPEX. The Assembly did not, at that time, deal specifically with the question of additional funds for OPEX, but

did take note of a draft resolution included by the Second (Economic) Committee in its report, which, among other things, asked the Technical Assistance Committee, in the review it was undertaking, to "give special attention to the importance of making the OPEX program more responsive to the needs of Governments by the provision of sufficient international resources."

EXTRA-BUDGETARY OPERATIONS

In 1962, as in previous years, the United Nations and its related agencies carried out some technical aid projects on the basis of extra-budgetary financing. Most of this supplementary program was accounted for by technical assistance on a payment basis, whereby a recipient government reimbursed the United Nations or the agencies directly and totally for the cost of projects which could not otherwise be carried out under the expanded program. The United Nations, ILO, FAO, UNESCO, ICAO, and ITU received a total of some \$2 million in 1962 from forty-two countries and territories.

In addition, some technical assistance projects were financed partly or wholly from contributions made to the United Nations by non-governmental organizations.

USE OF VOLUNTEER TECHNICAL PERSONNEL

In August 1961, the Economic and Social Council adopted a United States sponsored resolution, approving the consideration of the use of volunteer technical personnel in the technical assistance programs of the United Nations and its related agencies on a limited and experimental basis, subject to review and elaboration by the General Assembly. The Executive Chairman of the Technical Assistance Board was asked to report to the Council on the implementation of this resolution. The Council also decided that the use of volunteer personnel would be subject to certain principles.

The Assembly decided at its sixteenth session to defer consideration of the item to its seventeenth session, but in 1962 the item was not considered.

Meanwhile, however, the United Nations and several agencies continued to use the services of associate experts, most of them nationals of the Netherlands or of the Federal Republic of Germany, whose salaries and other expenses were paid by their own Governments. In 1962, negotiations were begun with other governments to have other associate experts or volunteers attached to United Nations and agency missions.

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE TO BURUNDI AND RWANDA

On June 27, 1962 the General Assembly adopted a resolution entitled "The Future of Ruanda-Urundi," in which, among other things, the Secretary-General was asked, in anticipation of the achievement of independence of Rwanda and Burundi on July 1, to report, with recommendations, on the need for technical and economic assistance by the two countries. The Assembly had had before it, prior to this action, the report of the United Nations Commission on Ruanda-Urundi, which had studied, *inter alia*, the economic and social conditions in the two countries in early 1962. (*For discussion of Ruanda-Urundi, other than technical assistance, see page 374.*)

The Secretary-General reported to the seventeenth session of the Assembly in November on the aid requirements of Rwanda and Burundi, and on the assistance they were receiving from the United Nations family of agencies, as well as from other sources. United Nations family projects initiated in 1962, together with new projects and supporting services for all the projects for the three years 1963-65, would, it was estimated, have a total cost of almost \$6 million.

In December the Assembly took account of the assistance being provided, authorized the Secretary-General to continue the projects begun in 1962, asked member states of the United Nations and specialized agencies to provide financial assistance for the new projects mentioned in the Secretary-General's report, and authorized the Secretary-General to incur, to the extent that other resources are not available, expenses up to an amount of \$200,000 to insure the execution of the 1962 projects.

QUESTION OF ASSISTANCE TO LIBYA

In 1950, the General Assembly assumed special responsibility for the future of Libya—especially its economic future—and at its tenth, thirteenth, and fifteenth sessions adopted resolutions implementing this policy. (*For discussion of Libya, see page 134.*)

In September 1962 the Secretary-General received from the Prime Minister of Libya a communication in which he stated that the Assembly might consider that the question of assistance to Libya no longer required a special agenda item and might be dealt with under the broader items dealing with problems of economic and social development. The Assembly, at its seventeenth session, took note of the Prime Minister's letter and of the Secretary-General's report on the question of assistance to Libya, and adopted a resolution expressing appreciation for Libya's willingness to forgo the preferential treatment it had hitherto been accorded by the Assembly, and asking all the aid agencies concerned to deal with the needs of Libya in the general framework of assistance to the newly independent countries, particularly in Africa.

Other United Nations Action in the Economic Field

Land and Agrarian Reform

Considerable attention has been paid by the United Nations and its specialized agencies to the role of agrarian reform in economic development. Between 1950 and 1954, three studies, made at the request of the General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council, were entitled: *Land Reform: Defects in Agrarian Structure as Obstacles to Economic Development*, *Progress in Land Reform*, and *Rural Progress Through Cooperatives*.

In 1954, the Council recommended that the International Bank give sympathetic consideration to applications for loans involving agrarian reform programs. It also recommended that FAO, in consultations with the Secretary-General, take steps to set up working parties for on-the-spot studies of special problems and to arrange regional conferences for the exchange of information. In addition, the Council invited governments to extend all appropriate assistance in the formation and development of cooperatives. The Council's recommendations were endorsed by the Assembly in 1954.

The Council considered the question of land reform and cooperatives again both in 1957 and 1959 on the basis of reports prepared by the Secretary-General in cooperation with the specialized agencies concerned. The General Assembly considered these questions in 1959 and in 1960. In 1960 the Assembly decided that the Secretary-General, in cooperation with FAO and other specialized agencies, should submit to the Council every three years an analytical survey on land reform in the underdeveloped countries, the first to be presented in 1962.

A note prepared by the Secretary-General for the sixteenth session of the General Assembly in 1961 summarized the progress made in implementing resolutions concerning land reform adopted at earlier sessions of the Assembly and of the Council. During the sixteenth session, land reform was one of the subjects considered in connection with the agenda item "Economic development of underdeveloped countries." While no specific decisions were taken by the Assembly in regard to land reform, the resolution on the United Nations Development Decade (*see page 196*) requested the Secretary-General to develop proposals for the intensification of action in the field of economic and social development, and among specific measures for assisting the developing countries, reference was made to well conceived and integrated country plans, including, where appropriate, land reform.

At its mid-1962 session the Council had before it the third report on progress in land reform prepared by the Secretary-General in collaboration with FAO, the ILO, and the governments of member

states. Contributions to it were also made by UNESCO, the Bank, and the Special Fund. The report was more analytical in its approach than its precursors, for in addition to a description of land reform measures taken since the appearance of the previous report, it dealt with the effects of land reform on agricultural productivity and output, employment in rural areas, the financing of agrarian reform, and the relationship of land reform to community development.

The Council, which in general received the report favorably, adopted a resolution recommending that member states establish evaluation services in land reform and support the establishment, as appropriate, of regional agrarian research and training institutes to carry out continuous study of land tenure and its reform and the adequate training of personnel for land reform activities. It was expected that the institutes would be established with government funds assisted by the Special Fund, and that FAO would give consultative service and act as the executing agency under such arrangements. The Council also recommended that appropriate links be established between measures of land reform and community development and similar rural development programs.

At its seventeenth session, the General Assembly, besides endorsing the Council resolution, emphasized the importance of implementing land reform in conjunction with adequate measures of community development. It called upon the Council and the subsidiary organs of the United Nations to devote their attention to the relationship between land reform and cooperation, urbanization, and industrialization, and to the fiscal and financial aspects of land reform, and asked governments to cooperate closely with the Secretary-General and with the specialized agencies in collecting the data necessary for preparing the fourth report on land reform programs.

Integrated Economic Development and Industrialization

The need for a continuing, comprehensive, and methodical study of economic development in achieving a better direction of effort and resources for the economic advancement of underdeveloped countries was recognized by the General Assembly in a resolution of January 12, 1952, which addressed two requests to the Economic and Social Council: first, the Council should promote studies of a program for the rapid industrialization of underdeveloped countries, including the economic, social, fiscal, technical, and organizational problems involved, and the roles which both industrially advanced and underdeveloped countries have to play in such a program. Second, it should, as soon as practicable, submit concrete proposals to the Assembly for measures that might aid such countries in connection with these problems.

Another General Assembly resolution of the same day asked the

Council to study the varying ways in which the productivity of peoples everywhere could be increased by the application of existing scientific and technological knowledge.

At its spring session in 1952, the Council stressed the need for coordinated and integrated policies of economic development, in particular for industrial diversification in harmony with the development of agricultural production, and asked the Secretary-General to prepare a report on the problems singled out by the Assembly. In addition, the Council drew the attention of governments to the technical assistance services available through the United Nations and specialized agencies for preparing and executing integrated development programs.

During recent years, questions concerning industrialization of underdeveloped countries have been considered at practically every session of the Council and the General Assembly, and both bodies have requested reports on the subject from the Secretary-General. In addition, progress reports on implementation of the work program on industrialization, five issues of the *Bulletin on Industrialization and Productivity*, studies entitled *Management of Industrial Enterprises in Underdeveloped Countries*, and *Establishment of Industrial Estates in Underdeveloped Countries*, and the report of the Advisory Committee on the work program on industrialization have been prepared. The Advisory Committee was set up by the Secretary-General in accordance with the Council's request of 1958 to review the work program and to make suggestions for its further development.

Among various recommendations made by the Council was one in 1957 asking that special attention be given to the needs of the Middle East and Africa, and another made in 1959 asking that the regional economic commissions and the specialized agencies assign high priority to the assistance needed by countries seeking to diversify their exports. Later in 1959 the General Assembly noted the need for speedier industrial development and that industrialization should be an essential part of development programs in the underdeveloped countries; it also called attention to the useful role which individual development banks and development corporations in these countries could play in promoting industrialization. Further, the Assembly stressed the need for a wider dissemination of advanced technological knowledge than was presently available to underdeveloped countries.

In 1960 the Council, acting upon the recommendations of the Assembly, established a standing Committee for Industrial Development, composed of the eighteen Council members and six additional members and charged with the task of advising the Council. Acting on a later recommendation of the Assembly, the Council increased the membership of the Committee to thirty to ensure a more balanced representation of member states. The Committee was asked to examine the work program on industrialization and recommendations related

to this program, and to make arrangements for relevant studies and collection of data. The first session of the Committee was held in March 1961.

In its report to the thirty-first session of the Council in 1961 the Committee for Industrial Development presented a number of recommendations. In the field of industrial programming and policies, the Committee recommended that measures be taken to collect and disseminate information on the institutional arrangements for, and the methods applied in, planning and programming industrial development in member states. Further, it suggested that the financing of industrial development be considered in the context of long-term development plans for the economic and industrial development of underdeveloped countries and recommended that international assistance be directed toward the achievement of this purpose. As regards the organizational aspects of its work, the Committee recommended that an Industrial Development Center be established within the Secretariat. The Center would undertake the collection, analysis, and dissemination of experience gained through technical assistance programs in the field of industrialization and would also provide a mechanism for coordinating the activities of the various United Nations bodies and members of the United Nations family.

At its thirty-first session the Council endorsed the recommendations of the Committee and, at its thirty-second session, called upon the Secretary-General and the heads of the agencies concerned to give effect to suggestions by the Secretary-General and the Administrative Committee on Coordination (ACC) for concerted action in the field of industrialization.

In a resolution adopted on December 19, 1961, the General Assembly endorsed the recommendations of the Council and the Committee and, *inter alia*, requested that the Industrial Development Center, which had been established in July 1961, begin its work without delay, and that particular attention be devoted to the question of financing industrial development, paying special attention to the utilization of internal resources.

In mid-1962, the Economic and Social Council had before it two memoranda, one by the Secretary-General and the other by the Commissioner for Industrial Development who had been appointed by the Secretary-General on June 1. The Secretary-General's memorandum proposed the recruitment of a small number of senior advisers—who would be stationed at United Nations Headquarters but assigned to the regional economic commissions as required—and the *ad hoc* use of outside high-level industrial consultants willing to place some of their time each year at the disposal of the United Nations. The Commissioner outlined the structure of the Center, stressed the link that existed between United Nations activities in the field of industrial development and the problems of international trade, and said his pro-

gram was essentially intended to mobilize, coordinate, and strengthen the efforts of the United Nations family in the industrial field.

The Council, following discussion of these memoranda, adopted a resolution expressing the wish that the experts who were to be appointed—and who were to be stationed in the regional economic commissions—should form part of the United Nations advisory service in the industrial field. Another hope of the Council was that adequate financial resources would be appropriated as a matter of high priority so as to expand United Nations activities in the field of industrialization, including the industrial advisory service, to meet the needs of the developing countries. Finally, the Council asked for the appointment of a ten-member advisory committee to examine what further organizational changes might be necessary to intensify United Nations aid for the industrial development of less developed countries, including the advisability of establishing a specialized agency for industrial development.

At its seventeenth session the General Assembly adopted two resolutions on the subject of industrial development, one entitled "Activities of the United Nations in the field of industrial development," and the other, "The role of the United Nations in training national technical personnel for the accelerated industrialization of the developing countries."

The former recommended that the ten-member advisory committee established by the Council consider the advisability of dealing with problems of industrial development, natural resources, energy, and possibly other related fields, within the framework of one organizational structure, and the possibility of bringing about a closer coordination of all activities related to industrialization at the national, regional, and international levels. The latter asked the Secretary-General to prepare a report which, among other things, would include estimates, first, of the requirements of the developing countries for technical personnel of the intermediate and higher levels and, second, of the available possibilities for training such personnel in those countries. In addition, the report would include proposals for measures within the United Nations system and recommendations to the governments concerned with regard to intensifying the training of national intermediate and higher technical personnel in the developing countries and, where appropriate, on an intraregional basis.

Natural Resources

RIGHT TO EXPLOIT NATURAL RESOURCES FREELY AND PERMANENT SOVEREIGNTY OVER NATURAL RESOURCES

One of the essentials of economic development is the encouragement of underdeveloped countries to exploit their natural resources. An As-

sembly resolution in 1952 pointed out that "the right of peoples freely to use and exploit their natural wealth and resources is inherent in their sovereignty and is in accordance with the United Nations Charter." The question of sovereignty over natural wealth and resources was frequently raised and discussed in the Commission on Human Rights, the Economic and Social Council, and the General Assembly.

In 1958 the General Assembly, upon the recommendation of the Commission on Human Rights and the Economic and Social Council, established a commission to conduct a full survey of the status of permanent sovereignty of peoples and nations over their natural wealth and resources.

In 1959, at its first session in May, the Commission on Permanent Sovereignty over Natural Resources called for a study by the Secretariat on the status of permanent sovereignty of peoples and nations over their natural wealth and resources. The study, which was completed at the end of the year, and considered by the Commission at its 1960 session, was revised to include additional pertinent information. The revised study was considered by the Commission at its third session in May 1961. In a report covering the work of its three sessions, the Commission asked the Council to recommend the adoption by the Assembly of a declaration containing eight principles on the permanent sovereignty of peoples and nations over their natural wealth and resources.

Meanwhile, the Assembly, at its fifteenth session in 1960, after consideration of an item entitled "Concerted action for economic development of economically less developed countries" had adopted a resolution recommending that "the sovereign right of every State to dispose of its wealth and its natural resources should be respected in conformity with the rights and duties of States under international law."

In mid-1961 the Economic and Social Council, because of insufficient opportunity to consider the Commission's report adequately, transmitted that report, together with records of the Council's discussions, to the Assembly at its sixteenth session that autumn.

The Assembly on December 19 decided to postpone its consideration of this item to its next session and requested that the Secretariat study, together with the report of the Commission, be speedily printed and that the United Nations work on that subject be continued.

The Assembly, at its seventeenth session in 1962, after discussing the Commission's draft resolution and the various amendments submitted thereto, adopted a resolution which declared eight principles relating to permanent sovereignty over natural wealth and resources (*see page 441*).

CONSERVATION AND UTILIZATION OF NON-AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES

A United Nations Scientific Conference on the Conservation and Utilization of Resources (UNSCCUR), attended by experts from more than 50 countries, was held at Lake Success, New York, from August 17 to September 6, 1949. Its purposes were to discuss techniques and exchange experiences rather than to formulate policies, therefore no recommendations were made and each of the contributors and participants functioned in an individual capacity. The work of the Conference showed that a new era of prosperity awaited mankind if modern techniques were universally applied and scientific knowledge used to discover and create new resources and make better use of existing ones.

A direct result of the Conference was that the Council decided, in March 1951, on an international program for conserving and utilizing non-agricultural resources. The Council asked the Secretary-General to give consideration to requests for technical assistance in the organization and planning of national surveys and inventories of such resources and to any general international action that might be taken in the conservation and use of particular resources. Member states, specialized agencies, and interested non-governmental organizations, the Council also recommended, should cooperate with the Secretary-General in these matters.

Another facet of the Council's program concerned the exchange of information at regional conferences on particular resources or resource problems. Believing that such an exchange could promote the effective and sustained use of the world's natural resources as a means of further economic development, the Council asked the Secretary-General to explore the possibility of holding such conferences.

On the basis of this resolution, work has developed in respect of three fields—namely, mineral resources, energy resources, and water resources. (*See also* International Cooperation on Cartography, *page* 284.)

In 1962, the Economic and Social Council received a report prepared by the Secretary-General on work being done in the field of non-agricultural resources. It stated that a rapid expansion of United Nations work had taken place during the past three years, chiefly because of the impact of the Special Fund's role in financing of projects, but also because of a parallel acceleration of technical assistance activities. The report included a review of the main activities of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs in respect of resources surveying and mapping, geology and mining, energy and electricity, and water resources development.

The Council noted with approval the nature and scope of the

work outlined and the trend of future work indicated in the report. In so doing, it recognized the increasing importance of this work for the promotion of economic development, and of substantive support for technical assistance and Special Fund activities. As regards energy resources, the Council considered it necessary to concentrate United Nations assistance activities to less developed countries on those sources of energy which are of major importance for their development including industrialization, and for raising the standards of living of their populations.

Mineral Resources. The Secretary-General had been authorized under the 1951 resolution to "establish, as necessary, small *ad hoc* committees of experts to consider specific resource surveys and inventory problems." The Secretary-General selected iron ore resources as the first subject of study under the program and in 1952 appointed a group of experts to study and prepare recommendations on standard concepts and terminology for use in surveys and inventories of iron ore resources.

The outcome of their work was the publication in October 1954 of *Survey of World Iron Ore Resources: Occurrence, Appraisal and Use*. This report contained not only a series of recommendations for the systematic and uniform appraisal by countries of their iron ore resources but a tentative world appraisal of such resources to show how these recommendations should be applied.

In 1955 a study was published on *Non-Ferrous Metals in Underdeveloped Countries*, assessing the position of the underdeveloped countries as producers and consumers of the major non-ferrous metals.

In more recent years, United Nations work on minerals has been mainly of an operational nature. This is a consequence, first, of the stepped-up United Nations technical assistance activities and, second, of the establishment of the Special Fund which has financed many projects pertaining to geology and mining, preinvestment exploration, evaluation of specific deposits, the establishment of specialized laboratories, and geological and mining institutes.

Energy Resources. The work of the United Nations on conservation and utilization of non-agricultural resources includes a continuous review of energy development and utilization. The Secretariat prepared three papers for presentation to the International Conference on the Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy held in Geneva in 1955. These dealt with *World Requirements of Energy, 1975-2000*, *Contribution of Nuclear Energy to Future World Power Needs*, and *Some Economic Implications of Nuclear Power for Underdeveloped Countries*.

In 1956 the Economic and Social Council dealt with the question of atomic and other new sources of energy as factors in economic

development. As a result of its deliberations, the Secretary-General, in cooperation with specialized agencies, prepared two reports, one entitled *Economic Applications of Atomic Energy: Power Generation and Industrial and Agricultural Uses*, and the other called *New Sources of Energy and Economic Development*. These were considered by the Council in 1957.

In 1959 the Council, after having considered the Secretary-General's report on *Work Done and Recommendations Concerning Energy Development*, asked the Secretary-General (a) to develop a methodology for the appraisal of energy resources on a usefully comparable basis at the national, regional, or other appropriate level; (b) to arrange for seminars to promote better understanding of the economic problems connected with the development of energy resources in underdeveloped countries; and (c) to prepare a report on the feasibility and usefulness of collecting and analyzing the experience obtained through technical assistance projects and related activities in the field of industrialization and energy.

Developments in the field of new sources of energy were also reviewed by the Council in 1959. The Council asked the Secretary-General to begin preparations for an international conference on solar energy, wind power, and geothermal energy with a view to its being held in 1961 or 1962. In 1960 the Council approved the Secretary-General's arrangements, and the United Nations Conference on New Sources of Energy was accordingly convened in Rome, in 1961.

The objectives of the Conference were: exchange of ideas and experience in the application of the three new sources of energy; consideration of means of bringing these techniques into wider use, particularly for the benefit of less developed areas; and provision of up-to-date information on progress achieved and on the potentialities as well as the limitations of these sources of energy, especially in those areas lacking the conventional energy sources or facing high energy costs. The Conference had a registered attendance of 447 persons representative of a wide range of professional disciplines and organizational backgrounds, drawn from seventy-four countries and territories.

A report on the Conference under the title *New Sources of Energy and Energy Development*, was prepared for Council consideration in 1962. It included a systematic synthesis of the papers and discussions, as well as a summary of the highlights and implications of the Conference. It was noted, among other things, that a breakthrough had taken place in knowledge of geothermal energy, that more intensive wind surveys were required and that there existed several methods of using wind power, and that there were now a great many applications of solar energy—among them water heating, distillation, space heating, cooling, and power production. The report

went on to say that the Conference had considered the possibilities of combining different energy sources, and had stressed the desirability of experimental stations to demonstrate the use of solar and wind energy and the further adaptation of techniques to the needs of less developed countries.

The Council adopted a resolution inviting the Secretary-General to arrange for widespread dissemination of the report on the Conference and to facilitate access to the scientific papers presented to the Conference, and asking him to examine, with special reference to the provision of energy for the developing countries, methods of coordinating and facilitating research into new sources of energy and its applications, particularly solar energy, wind power, and geothermal energy.

Another question to which the United Nations has given attention is that of petroleum resources development. The possibilities of international cooperation in this field were considered by the General Assembly in 1958, 1959, and 1960 and, at the request of the Assembly, were also considered by the Economic and Social Council at a number of its sessions. At its twenty-ninth session in 1960, the Council had before it a report by the Secretary-General on the studies which had so far been undertaken in that field. After considering the report, the Council invited the Secretary-General and the Executive Chairman of the Technical Assistance Board to continue to provide assistance, at the request of governments, along existing lines and also to organize seminars on the techniques of petroleum development. It also requested the Secretary-General to bring to its attention any significant increases in requests by underdeveloped countries for services of petroleum experts which could not adequately be taken care of under existing facilities.

In early 1962 a United Nations Inter-regional Seminar on Techniques of Petroleum Development was held at United Nations Headquarters. The Seminar constituted an intensive background training course in the technical, administrative, and operational aspects of the petroleum industry designed for senior administrators responsible for petroleum or energy-policy formulation in less developed countries.

Later that year the Council had before it a study entitled *Petroleum Exploration—Capital Requirements and Methods of Financing* prepared by the Secretary-General pursuant to a recommendation of the Committee for Industrial Development. In investigating capital requirements for exploration of petroleum, the study attempted to establish the range of unit costs for the various operations entailed, such as aerial photography, geological and geophysical methods of exploration and drilling. The Council, after considering the report, adopted a resolution requesting the Committee on Industrial Development to consider any changes and additions that might be necessary to enhance the usefulness of the study.

Water Resources. The importance of international cooperation in water resources control and utilization was recognized by the Economic and Social Council as early as March 1951. In the following year the Council had before it the first report on this subject by the Secretary-General, as well as a related report on *Development of Arid Land*. This proved to be the beginning of a series of biennial reviews, of which there have been six to date.

Upon considering the first of these reports, the Council noted the many-sided and interdependent character of water problems and the contributions that might be made by international organizations. It requested the Secretary-General, in consultation with the specialized agencies and other organizations, to assume responsibility for the organization and coordination of international activities.

Accordingly, consultations were held between the United Nations and the specialized agencies immediately concerned which resulted in the convening, in the summer of 1954, of the first interagency meeting on water resources control and utilization. Through that and similar meetings held annually since then, cooperation at the working level has been developed.

In addition, a number of studies were prepared at the request of, and considered in 1958 by, the Council: *Water for Industrial Use*, *Preliminary Enquiry on Existing Hydrological Services*, and *Integrated River Basin Development*.

The Council, at its twenty-fifth session in May 1958, called attention of member governments of the United Nations to these reports, and asked the Secretary-General to take appropriate measures to establish a center within the United Nations to promote coordinated efforts for the development of water resources.

As a result a Water Resources Development Center was established in January 1959. Its main objectives were to achieve a common approach in water resources development and to promote the most fruitful use of existing facilities within the United Nations family.

In April 1960 the Council had before it the first biennial report of the Center, reviewing the organizational arrangements for coordination and concerted action and the progress of projects, and making a number of recommendations for further action. The Council endorsed these priorities for action and also maintained the priorities which had been established previously. It also recommended that attention be given to the development of standards and criteria for the formulation and study of water resources projects.

Later in 1960, the Center brought out a study entitled *Large-Scale Ground Water Development*, which had been prepared jointly by the various organizations participating in the Center's activities. The study was addressed primarily to administrators responsible for

comprehensive development of ground water, but it was also of interest to technicians.

In early 1962, the Council considered the second biennial report of the Center. Among other things, it was pointed out that developments—particularly, the related activities of the Special Fund and the Development Decade—had affected and would affect the Center's responsibilities and that there was need to review the existing arrangements pertaining to the Center. The Council, appreciative of the Secretary-General's proposal to review the existing arrangements of the Center, adopted a resolution reaffirming its support of the Center. It also asked the Secretary-General and the specialized agencies concerned to ensure, *inter alia*, by secondment of personnel as appropriate, that the Center should be in a position to fulfill its functions, and requested that the Center draw up proposals for a priority program of coordinated action in the water resources field within the framework of the Development Decade.

Full Employment and Economic Stability

Measures to maintain full employment and economic stability have been considered by the Economic and Social Council every year since 1947.

In 1949 the Council invited the Secretary-General to appoint a small group of experts to prepare, in the light of the current world economic situation, a report on national and international measures required to achieve full employment, as a basis for eventual Council action. (The experts' report, entitled *National and International Measures for Full Employment*, was considered at the Council's eleventh session in 1950.) The Secretary-General was further asked to publish brief up-to-date reports on full-employment measures taken in various countries.

The General Assembly recommended in November 1949 that each government consider, as a matter of urgency, its international responsibility, under Articles 55 and 56 of the Charter, to take action to promote and maintain full and productive employment. The Assembly also asked the Council to give attention to questions of unemployment and underemployment especially in underdeveloped countries and particularly in such critical fields as agriculture.

In 1950, the Council adopted a resolution on measures to maintain full employment and to meet the problems of unemployment and underemployment in underdeveloped countries. The resolution declared that governments could achieve and maintain full employment in an expanding world economy under conditions ensuring fundamental political and economic freedoms to the individual. More specifically, it recommended, *inter alia*, that each government publish an annual statement on its economic objectives for the ensuing year or

for an appropriately longer period, and that each forward to the Secretary-General for studies, reports, and analyses that he would make, information on both national and international measures undertaken to bring about full employment. In addition, the Council urged the International Bank to use all practicable opportunities, in the event of a recession, to increase its resources for expanding the volume of its loans. At the same time, the International Monetary Fund was urged to make its resources available to its members to meet needs arising from economic recessions. Further, the Secretary-General was asked to appoint a small group of experts to formulate and analyze alternative ways for reducing the impact of possible national recessions. (Their report, entitled *Measures for International Economic Stability*, was considered by the Council in the summer of 1952.) The Secretary-General was also asked to appoint and assist a small group of experts to report on and propose national and international measures to reduce unemployment and underemployment in underdeveloped countries. In addition, the resolution recommended that governments, specialized agencies, and the Secretary-General pursue action already undertaken in the field of migration taking into consideration the importance of the international mobility of labor to solve employment problems. Finally, the Council asked the Secretary-General and the appropriate specialized agencies to provide technical assistance, upon request, to help governments carry out the objectives of its resolution.

The General Assembly on December 12, 1960 approved the Council resolution and asked governments to cooperate with the Secretary-General in making the studies which the Council had requested of him.

Another Assembly resolution of the same date concerned the aggravation of unemployment and underemployment in underdeveloped countries that might follow the mechanization of agriculture and industry. That problem, the Assembly emphasized, should be studied by the expert group set up to study measures to reduce unemployment and underemployment in underdeveloped countries. The report of these experts appeared in 1951, under the title *Measures for the Economic Development of Underdeveloped Countries*. Their analysis of unemployment and underemployment problems led them to the conclusion that it was necessary to create new employment rapidly, "and this," they stated, "is the reason why the emphasis of our report is upon economic development rather than upon unemployment."

The Council in 1951 again discussed problems of maintaining full employment in developed countries and the unemployment problems of underdeveloped countries. It was recognized that despite the current improvement in their foreign trade balances, the underdeveloped countries might find it difficult to increase productivity at a

desirable rate without continued growth in capital equipment and without more technical assistance. The Council decided to discuss once every year, beginning in 1952, the problems of reducing structural unemployment and underemployment in underdeveloped countries. The Council also asked the Secretary-General to amend his questionnaire to governments on employment matters so as to take into account the special problems of underdeveloped countries. The questionnaire has been modified over subsequent years to elicit information relating more directly to the problems and developments covered in the annual *World Economic Survey*.

In 1952 the Council, after considering the experts' report *Measures for International Economic Stability*, concluded that to secure world economic stability and full employment, international action must supplement national efforts. One recommendation was for the establishment of international commodity arrangements to reduce the impact of short-run swings in the demand and supply of primary products.

In the final Council resolution there was no specific reference in favor of international commodity agreements but the Secretary-General was asked to make a study of the relative price movements of various types of goods on the world market. He was also asked to invite member governments to state their views on measures they might consider necessary to prevent adverse effects on their economies resulting from reduced defense expenditures. The Council called upon all governments to reduce obstacles to international trade as a means of increasing employment. And finally, the Council, recognizing that the level of monetary reserves available to member states was an important factor in maintaining international economic stability, requested the International Monetary Fund to continue to keep the adequacy of such reserves under review for the purposes of helping countries to meet temporary dislocations in their international payments.

In 1954 the Council drew the attention of member states to the documents surveying the experience of governments in dealing with inflationary tendencies at high levels of economic activity. It recommended, in a resolution of August 4, that states be prepared at any time to take action to maintain high and expanding levels of production and employment in the face of reductions in demand, but to avoid action that would have adverse effects upon employment and economic development in other states. The Council also recommended that national and international efforts should be intensified to reduce instability in the prices of primary commodities and to facilitate the flow of capital to underdeveloped countries. Taking up the question of full employment policies once again, in 1961, the Council adopted a resolution which recommended that member states "should pursue

all appropriate economic and social measures to achieve and maintain full employment," and called for a report on the subject, which was submitted to the Council in 1962.

Statistical Questions

The statistical activities of the United Nations are carried out under the guidance of the Statistical Commission, a functional commission of the Economic and Social Council which advises the Council and the Secretary-General. The Commission first met in 1947, thereafter holding annual sessions and, more recently, biennial sessions. The membership in the Commission increased from twelve to fifteen in 1951 and to eighteen in 1962.

The central unit for the collection, analysis, publication, standardization, and improvement of statistics is the United Nations Statistical Office, which functions in cooperation with the secretariats of the regional economic commissions and the specialized agencies, each of the specialized agencies being responsible for the collection of statistics relating to its own field of activity.

The Statistical Commission held its twelfth session in April and May 1962. Among other things it recommended the following: that a special study should be made of statistical requirements for planning economic and social development in less developed countries; that the study on the systems of industrial statistics of five highly industrialized countries should be revised and a similar study initiated for selected countries in Latin America, Asia, and Africa; and that the study should be completed on the inter-relationship between the United Nations system of national accounts and the system used in countries with centrally planned economies. The Commission also recommended the establishment of a center, attached to the Statistical Office, for the collection and publication of international data on external trade. The center, which began operations with the annual data for 1962, uses electronic computers to put quarterly data in standard units of quantity and value, to verify them, and to rearrange and tabulate them.

REGIONAL ACTIVITIES

In 1949 the Economic and Social Council recommended that meetings of regional statisticians be convened in order to provide an exchange of experience and discussion of problems peculiar to each region. As a result, three regional conferences have been set up. By the end of 1962, ten plenary sessions of the Conference of European Statisticians had been held, four of the Conference of Asian Statisticians, and two of the Conference of African Statisticians (the "youngest" of the re-

gional meetings). In Latin America, the Inter-American Statistical Institute cooperates with the United Nations with respect to activities similar to those carried out by the regional conferences.

In 1956 the Council, recognizing the need for more adequate arrangements covering advisory statistical services to governments, recommended measures to systematize and strengthen statistical assistance on a regional basis. Following this, regional statisticians were appointed and are now in posts in Europe, Asia and the Far East, Africa, and Latin America.

During the period 1958-61, a team of United Nations/FAO regional census advisers (financed by a Ford Foundation grant) made approximately 100 visits to the countries of Asia and the Far East, giving advice on various aspects of population and agricultural censuses. In 1961 a similar regional advisory service was established in Africa, and in 1962 in Latin America.

DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION OF INTERNATIONAL STANDARDS

The Statistical Office has as one of its principal functions the development and improvement of national statistics (especially in the less developed areas of the world). Much of its work has, therefore, been devoted to the formulation of standards, guiding principles, uniform definitions, and concepts.

One of the standards, promulgated by the Economic and Social Council in 1950, is the Standard International Trade Classification (SITC). In 1960 the Statistical Commission requested its revision in order to make it possible for countries to base both customs nomenclature and statistical classification on a single list of goods. By the end of 1962 an analysis of the data of approximately fifty countries could be made according to the SITC, Revised.

The International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities (ISIC), promulgated by the Council in 1948, was at the end of 1962 known to have been used by fifty-seven countries as a basis for formulating their industrial classifications; twenty-eight additional countries had national classifications which coincided closely with the ISIC system.

In addition to those two classification schemes, standards have been established in numerous other fields. The Statistical Office has also prepared a series of technical studies and handbooks on a variety of subjects, with special emphasis on the application of international standards and recommendations.

The 1960 World Population Census Program, covering censuses to be carried out by countries during the decade 1955-64, was launched in 1953. As part of this Program, the United Nations and

FAO co-sponsored in 1958 two regional census training centers, one for Asia and the Far East and one for Latin America (the latter also sponsored by the Inter-American Statistical Institute). By the end of 1962, 221 censuses had been taken; about fifteen more are expected to be taken by the end of 1964.

The 1963 World Program of Basic Industrial Statistics, covering censuses to be carried out for the year 1963, or a year close to 1963, was launched in 1958. To prepare for the World Program, seminars on industrial statistics were held in 1960 (for Latin America), in 1961 (for Asia and the Far East), and in 1962 (for Africa). By the end of 1962 about ninety countries had indicated their intention of participating in the Program.

TECHNICAL COOPERATION

AND ASSISTANCE IN THE FIELD OF STATISTICS

Between 1948 and the end of 1962 over 300 statistical consultants had been placed at the disposition of governments, and over 350 fellowships had been awarded in the statistical field (not counting awards given to enable technicians to attend training centers, seminars, and group study tours sponsored by the United Nations).

To meet the needs of Africa for trained statisticians, four permanent training centers under United Nations auspices had opened by February 1962: in Rabat for university-level trainees and in Accra, Addis Ababa and Yaoundé for middle-level trainees.

A Statistical Center was established in June 1954 at the University of the Philippines, with the assistance of the United Nations. By October 1962, thirty-three students had received master's degrees and one had received a Certificate in Statistics. The Center was attended by an average of 100 students during each of the seventeen semesters between 1954 and October 1962. In addition, 334 students attended eight summer sessions and 530 attended 17 in-service training sessions. A number of special training sessions have also been held.

Between 1952 and 1955, the United Nations and the World Health Organization co-sponsored an Inter-American Center of Biostatistics in Santiago, Chile. One hundred sixteen persons from nineteen countries were trained during that period. United Nations sponsorship ceased at the end of 1955, when the Center was incorporated into the regular program of the School of Public Health of the University of Chile.

In addition to the long-term permanent training activities described above, between 1948 and the end of 1962 the Statistical Office participated—as organizer, co-sponsor or collaborator—in thirty-nine short-term training centers, seminars, and group study tours.

DATA COLLECTION AND PUBLICATION PROGRAM

One of the functions of the Statistical Office of the United Nations is the collection and publication of statistics to show the main economic and social characteristics of the world as a whole and the national component, by means of periodic as well as *ad hoc* reports.

Five basic reference works are published every year: the *Statistical Yearbook*, the *Demographic Yearbook*, the *Yearbook of International Trade Statistics*, *World Energy Supplies*, and the *Yearbook of National Accounts Statistics*. Periodically, a *Supplement* to the *Bulletin* is issued to provide more detailed definitions and explanatory notes about the scope, coverage, methods of compilation, and other factors affecting the international comparability of statistics. Current figures are also given in the following publications: *Population and Vital Statistics Report* (quarterly), *Commodity Trade Statistics*, and *Direction of International Trade* (monthly, published jointly with the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank). A new quarterly, *Current Economic Indicators*, was started in 1960. A system of 500 indicators is employed, and quarterly changes in these are presented in both graphic and tabular form. The first issue of a new series, *Patterns of Industrial Growth*, was also issued in 1960.

In addition to those publications presenting data and to those setting forth standards, guiding principles, and methodological studies, the Statistical Office has published reports of training centers, bibliographies, notes on current events in international statistics, information on current sample surveys, retail price comparisons for international salary determination and a list of statistical series published by international organizations.

Fiscal and Financial Questions

Fiscal and financial problems have for many years been a matter for consideration by the Economic and Social Council and other United Nations bodies. The work program of the Secretariat, which reflects this consideration, has consisted mainly of providing technical assistance, information, and advice, on request, to governments as well as to organs of the United Nations and to the specialized agencies, and of preparing studies and reports on subjects considered by the Economic and Social Council. Until 1954, the Council was advised on fiscal problems by its Fiscal Commission. The activities of this Commission, however, were discontinued in 1954 when the fiscal work of the United Nations had become well established. The Secretariat, having received adequate guidance from the Fiscal Commission and the Council, was asked to continue studies of fiscal problems and to maintain a fiscal information service.

BUDGETARY QUESTIONS

In the field of government budgeting, the Council concerned itself with the development of sound principles of budgeting and accounting, the improvement of budgetary practices, and the problems of government financial reporting. The Secretariat published in 1951 a study entitled *Budgetary Structure and Classification of Government Accounts*, which included an analysis of the main features of various national budget systems; in 1952 it published an analysis of representative government accounting systems and procedures in its publication *Government Accounting and Budget Execution*. In response to the interest expressed by member governments, regional workshops on problems of budget reclassification and management have been organized by the Secretariat in Asia and the Far East, Latin America, and Africa, under the auspices of the United Nations technical assistance program. In order to facilitate the discussion of budget reclassification problems, the Secretariat prepared *A Manual for Economic and Functional Classification of Government Transactions*, which was published in 1958 to serve as a guide in the reclassification of government transactions with a view to providing required data for programming economic stability and development. In 1958, the Secretariat also published *Reclassification of Government Expenditures and Receipts in Selected Countries*. In recent years, economic planning in less developed countries has focused attention on the problems of improving budget management with a view to establishing a close link between budgeting and planning. In this respect, the regional budget workshops have considered budgetary techniques which are primarily designed to facilitate budgeting in terms of programs, projects, or activities and which in turn measure the performance of budget execution in real or physical terms. These techniques, therefore, shift the emphasis from a purely cost-oriented budget to physical performance together with their cost.

In 1960 the Secretariat prepared a draft *Manual for Programme and Performance Budgeting*, which was discussed in the subsequent regional budget workshops.

TAX PROBLEMS

In the tax field, the Council first examined the question of obstacles to the flow of international trade and investments which may result from uncoordinated action of governments. It urged member governments to pursue a policy of concluding bilateral agreements aimed at avoiding double taxation. The General Assembly and the Council then asked the Secretary-General to study the possibility of stimulating the flow of private capital to underdeveloped countries through tax incentives. (*See Financing Economic Development, page 191.*)

The publication by the Secretariat of *The Effects of Taxation on Foreign Trade and Investment* in 1950 was followed by research on the taxation of foreign private investments in a number of capital-exporting and capital-importing countries and by periodic reports on the international flow of private capital submitted to the Council. For instance, in 1960, the Council received the progress report *The Promotion of the International Flow of Private Capital* which included a survey of the tax measures designed to encourage the flow of foreign private capital into underdeveloped countries.

In 1954 a report entitled *Taxes and Fiscal Policies in Underdeveloped Countries* presented a review of experience gained in the operation of the United Nations and other technical assistance programs in the tax field. The tax problems of agriculture have been investigated jointly with Harvard University at the request of, and in cooperation with, FAO. Harvard University published findings in this area in the *Papers and Proceedings of the Conference on Agricultural Taxation and Economic Development* (a conference held at Harvard University early in 1954).

In 1961 the problems of tax administration in Latin America were the subject of a conference held at Buenos Aires. In the following year a conference on tax policy in that region was held in Santiago.

FINANCIAL QUESTIONS

The General Assembly and the Council have paid continuing attention to the international flow of private capital and the mobilization of domestic and foreign capital for the financing of economic development. In addition to the publications and periodic reports submitted to the Council on these questions (*see Financing Economic Development, page 191*), the Secretariat has been conducting comparative studies of financial policies and institutions. A technical note on *Index Clause in Deferred Payments* was published in 1957, and studies were initiated on the financial patterns and institutions for channelling resources into productive investment in low-income countries.

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE IN FINANCIAL MATTERS

In accordance with Council resolutions, highest priority among the activities of the United Nations in the fiscal and financial field has been given to rendering technical assistance to governments at their request. Such aid has been provided through expert missions working in, and training courses in fiscal subjects established in, the recipient countries as well as through the training of their budget and tax officials in other countries, including training within the Fiscal and Financial Branch of the Secretariat. Assistance of a regional nature

has included, in addition to the budgetary workshops organized in Africa, Latin America and in the Far East, expert missions in connection with regional projects. In 1962 about fifty experts from twenty different countries participated in technical assistance projects in thirty-one underdeveloped countries and territories.

PUBLIC FINANCE INFORMATION

As part of its fiscal information service, the Secretariat of the United Nations has published public finance information papers on Colombia, Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Italy, and Peru, and two public finance surveys dealing more comprehensively with the public finances of India and Venezuela. *Public Debt, 1914-1946* presents tabular data for some fifty countries.

In the United Nations *Statistical Yearbook, 1961*, as well as in volumes of the preceding years, the chapter on "Public Finance Statistics" gives information on public debt and on major components of government expenditures and receipts according to economic character and function.

In the tax field the United Nations publishes, in the series *International Tax Agreements*, the texts of agreements for the avoidance of double taxation and the prevention of fiscal evasion, as well as information on the status of all known tax agreements. In response to an invitation of the Economic and Social Council to cooperate with the Secretary-General, the publication of a World Tax Series, consisting of comprehensive reports on national tax systems and administration, was initiated in 1957 by the Harvard Law School International Program in Taxation, with the cooperation of the Fiscal and Financial Branch of the Secretariat.

Transport and Communications

United Nations work in the sphere of transport and communications was, in the past, concerned mainly with the preparation of international conventions and protocols pertaining to travel and the transport of persons and goods. The organ that was responsible for initiating most of this work was the Economic and Social Council, which had the assistance, until 1959, of the Transport and Communications Commission. The latter had the task of advising the Council in transport and communication matters, particularly in fields where no permanent international organization yet existed. In 1959 the Commission was terminated by the Council. Some of the Commission's residual activities were taken over by the Council, while others were assigned to the regional economic commissions.

At present, the main emphasis of United Nations work is on transport development and related assistance to developing countries

in such matters as inland transport by road, rail, and water and on broader questions of transport policy and programing, especially in relation to economic development. The United Nations has also been concerned with the promotion of tourism.

SPECIALIZED AGENCIES IN THE FIELD OF TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

For the role of ICAO, ITU, UPU, and IMCO in the field of transport and communications, see Part Three, the Intergovernmental Agencies.

ROAD AND MOTOR TRANSPORT

A United Nations Conference on Road and Motor Transport was convened in August-September 1949. The conference adopted a new Convention on Road Traffic, which came into force on March 26, 1952, and prepared an optional Protocol on Road Signs and Signals, which came into force on December 20, 1953. As of December 31, 1962, there were sixty-six parties to the former and thirty parties to the latter.

As a step toward eventual establishment of a common world-wide system, a group of experts on road signs and signals was appointed in 1950. They prepared what became known as the 1953 Draft Protocol on a Uniform System of Road Signs and Signals. The Economic and Social Council in 1955 recommended to governments that they consider, either unilaterally or bilaterally or in regional agreements, the provisions of the draft protocol when revising their systems of road signs and signals, in order to further the progressive achievement of uniformity in this field.

A West African Transport Conference held in Monrovia, Liberia, in 1961, in addition to discussing numerous transport problems common to West Africa, adopted a uniform system of road signs and signals for the region.

Minimum uniform regulations pertaining to the licensing of drivers were drafted by a group of experts convened in 1952 and were recommended to governments for their consideration. In addition, consideration has been given, with the assistance of the World Health Organization, to the question of mental and physical fitness of applicants for driving permits. Recommendations on this subject were prepared and circulated to governments for comment.

PASSPORT AND FRONTIER FORMALITIES

A meeting of experts on passport and frontier formalities was convened in Geneva in April 1947. The meeting made a number of rec-

ommendations for the easing and simplification of frontier formalities concerning passports, visas, police controls, customs inspection, currency control, and other matters. On the advice of the Transport and Communications Commission, the Council recommended to governments the use by all means of transport of the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) standard visa format for international travel.

CUSTOMS FORMALITIES

Pursuant to a resolution of the Economic and Social Council of August 1951, the Secretary-General ascertained the views of governments on certain aspects of customs formalities and reported thereon to the Transport and Communications Commission in February 1953. As a result, the United Nations Conference on Customs Formalities for the Temporary Importation of Private Road Motor Vehicles and for Tourism was convened in New York in mid-1954. The Conference prepared and opened for signature the following three instruments: the Convention concerning Customs Facilities for Touring, which came into force on September 11, 1957, and to which there were forty-five parties as of December 31, 1962; an Additional Protocol to the Convention Relative to the Importation of Tourist Publicity Documents and Material, which came into force on June 28, 1956, and to which there were forty parties as of December 31, 1962; and the Customs Convention on the Temporary Importation of Private Road Vehicles, which came into force on December 15, 1957, and had been ratified by forty-four states as of December 31, 1962.

DEVELOPMENT OF INTERNATIONAL TRAVEL

As part of its continuing activities in this field, the Transport and Communications Commission in February 1955 considered a report by the Secretary-General on developments in international travel, including relevant activities of the specialized agencies and other international organizations.

Shortly thereafter, in March 1955, the Economic and Social Council adopted a resolution in which it invited governments to: examine the beneficial effects of increased tourism; survey their tourist facilities to determine existing deficiencies; simplify entry and exit procedures and formalities applicable to tourists; and take certain other measures designed to develop tourism. The Council also requested the United Nations organs and appropriate specialized agencies to give favorable consideration to constructive projects, within their competence, designed to increase tourist facilities and to promote travel, and asked the Secretary-General to study the available statistics on tourist travel and to report to the Statistical Commission

regarding the establishment of uniform definitions, standards, and methods in this sphere.

In the summer of 1959 the Council asked the Secretary-General to bring up to date and continue his technical studies in the field of international travel and tourism and to make recommendations on the question of calling an international conference on this subject.

In 1961, after considering a note of the Secretary-General on the subject, the Council requested him to call a conference on international travel and tourism as soon as possible, but not later than the autumn of 1963. It also asked him, in consultation if necessary with a group of not more than seven experts, to prepare recommendations concerning the nature, scope, and location of the conference, including a provisional agenda. The Secretary-General then constituted a group of seven experts, who met in Geneva from January 29 to February 9, 1962. The group's report was transmitted to the Economic and Social Council in April.

The Council, on April 9, adopted a resolution which asked the Secretary-General to invite all states members of the United Nations and the specialized agencies to send representatives to a conference on international travel and tourism to be held in Rome in the autumn of 1963. The Council decided that, with certain amendments, the provisional agenda should be as recommended by the expert group of seven, and should encompass, *inter alia*, promotion of action to abolish passports and visas and to simplify or liberalize customs procedures and other formalities as well as measures to develop tourism, including technical assistance for this purpose.

TRANSPORT OF DANGEROUS GOODS

Following a proposal of the Transport and Communications Commission in 1950 that work on the subject of transport of dangerous goods be begun, the Secretary-General examined, together with competent international and national bodies, various aspects of the problem, to determine which were appropriate for uniform regulation. A report was published in 1953 embodying the results of this study.

In 1954 a committee of experts, appointed by the Secretary-General, was convened in Geneva. It prepared a report which was subsequently circulated to governments for comment, revised at a second meeting of the experts in the fall of 1956, and published under the title, *Transport of Dangerous Goods—Recommendations Concerning the Classification, Listing and Labelling of Dangerous Goods and Shipping Papers for Such Goods*.

In 1957 the Economic and Social Council decided to set up a new committee to complete the list of dangerous goods, keep it up to date, and generally pursue the tasks begun by the previous com-

mittee of experts. The Committee of Experts for Further Work on the Transport of Dangerous Goods held its first session in 1959.

Meanwhile, the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) had been entrusted by the Council in 1959 with drafting recommendations on the transport of radioactive substances consistent with the United Nations recommendations. In addition, a group of three experts on explosives was appointed and met in Geneva in August 1961, their task being to list and recommend methods of packing explosives. The Committee of Experts, at its second session in 1961, noted with approval the progress report of the experts on explosives and also recommended incorporating into the United Nations recommendations the regulations which had been worked out by IAEA.

In 1962, reports, both of the Committee of Experts and the group of experts on explosives, were submitted to the Council, which approved the principles established and recommendations made. The Secretary-General was requested, among other things, to amend the classification and list of principal dangerous goods set out in the United Nations 1956 Recommendations.

POLLUTION OF SEA WATER

Problems arising from the pollution of sea water were considered by the Economic and Social Council in 1950 and 1951, pending the establishment of the Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization (IMCO). In London, in 1954, an *ad hoc* diplomatic conference of the major maritime powers took place, which adopted an international convention on this subject, and, as the United Nations was represented, requested the Secretary-General to assemble technical information on oil pollution. In 1956 he made available a report entitled *Pollution of the Sea by Oil*.

This problem is now within the purview of IMCO.

DISCRIMINATION IN TRANSPORT INSURANCE

The question of discrimination in transport insurance was considered by the Transport and Communications Commission and by the Economic and Social Council in 1951 and 1953, when the Secretary-General submitted a report summarizing available information on the problem. The report was subsequently brought to the attention of the Contracting Parties to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), for possible action, and also to the International Monetary Fund, with a view to its examining the possibility of easing exchange controls as applied to transport insurance. This question has also received the attention of the Economic Commission for Europe.

TRANSPORT DEVELOPMENT

The development of transport facilities is an integral part, if not a precondition, of the process of rapid economic advancement. As was mentioned earlier, United Nations work in the field of transport and communications is now primarily concentrated on the question of transport development in developing countries.

Those activities take two forms: provision of technical and financial assistance to countries, on request, in respect of particular projects; and research and systematizing of experience, so that developing countries might have available to them a fund of advice and information on latest developments and methods.

The bulk of United Nations activities are of an operational nature. Some projects pertain to relatively specialized matters concerning inland transport by road, rail, or water, while others pertain to broader transport problems such as transport policy and programming. The Organization is now placing growing emphasis on the latter type of project.

The United Nations has also helped to establish a number of training centers—for example, a regional training center at Auki, Solomon Islands, for boat building; one in Turkey for highway engineering; and another at Lahore, Pakistan, for railway signalling and operation.

International Cooperation on Cartography

ORIGIN OF THE UNITED NATIONS CARTOGRAPHIC OFFICE

The need for regional and world-wide coordination of cartographic services, as well as for further surveying and mapping of vast areas of the world, was already widely felt at the time of the establishment of the United Nations. In 1948 the Economic and Social Council asked the Secretary-General: (1) to further the stimulation of national programs of surveying and mapping by promoting, among other things, the exchange of technical information, including the preparation of a study of modern cartographic methods; (2) to coordinate the plans and programs of the United Nations and specialized agencies in the field of cartography; and (3) to develop close cooperation with cartographic services of interested member governments.

To secure a plan of work for the carrying out of this resolution, the Secretary-General appointed a group of experts, whose report and a study prepared by the Pan American Institute of Geography were published in 1949 under the title *Modern Cartography—Base Maps for World Needs*.

In the light of the findings of the experts and a report by the Secretary-General, the Council laid down further instructions in July 1949. The Secretary-General was to: (1) consult with governments

concerning the early calling of regional meetings on cartography; (2) set up a cartographic office capable of dealing with the existing and future needs of the United Nations and of providing, in cooperation with international scientific organizations, such assistance as might be requested by the specialized agencies; (3) continue coordinating the plans and programs of the United Nations and the specialized agencies in the field of cartography; (4) publish periodical summaries on cartography that would constitute a report on activities, progress, and plans in this field and would, it was hoped, facilitate the coordination of national programs; and (5) examine the possibility of absorption by the United Nations of the Central Bureau of the International Map of the World on the Millionth Scale (IMW).

The Cartographic Office was set up at United Nations Headquarters in 1950.

PERIODIC BULLETIN ON CARTOGRAPHY

Point (4) above was implemented by the publication of the bulletin, *World Cartography*, first issued in 1951. Seven volumes have been published to date.

INTERNATIONAL MAP OF THE WORLD ON THE MILLIONTH SCALE

The transfer to the United Nations of the Central Bureau of the IMW was effected in 1951. The functions which are carried out by the Cartographic Office consist mainly in assisting the governments concerned in coordinating the publication of the sheets of the map and in exchanging related information. Liaison is maintained with the national cartographic agencies in charge of the project, and progress reports are published annually under the title, *International Map of the World on the Millionth Scale*.

Pursuant to an Economic and Social Council request of 1961, the Secretary-General convened in Bonn, Germany, in August 1962, an international technical conference which reviewed and revised the specifications for a uniform presentation of the international map of the world on the millionth scale.

INTERNATIONAL STANDARDIZATION IN THE WRITING OF GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES ON MAPS

The need of establishing as much uniformity as possible in the writing of geographical names has become increasingly apparent with the growing variety of maps, the quantity produced, and the uses to which they are put. The Cartographic Office early became aware of the urgency of the problem, and a proposal concerning it was submitted

to the United Nations in 1951 by Iran. The following are the steps that have been taken pursuant to Council instructions in 1953, 1956, and 1959: consultations were held with governments, and the results were reported to the Council; a program was drafted for bringing about maximum international uniformity in the writing of geographical names; and a group of experts was appointed and charged with examining the technical problems of domestic standardization, as well as the desirability of holding an international conference on this subject,

In April 1961 the Council, having received the group of experts' report, invited governments to take steps, as appropriate, for the early implementation of the experts' recommendations, and transmit to the Secretary-General information on the progress being made in the standardization of geographical names and related information. In addition, the Secretary-General was asked to submit, within two years, a report to the Council on the progress being made by governments and on the desirability of convening an international conference on the standardization of geographical names.

REGIONAL CARTOGRAPHIC CONFERENCES

The Council's instructions of July 1949 included one to the effect that the Secretary-General should consult with governments concerning the early calling of regional meetings on cartography. The first of what turned out to be a series of such conferences was convened in February 1955, in Mussoorie, India.

The second and third United Nations Regional Cartographic Conferences for Asia and the Far East were held in Tokyo, in October 1958, and in Bangkok, in October 1961, respectively. The conferences were attended by representatives from a considerable number of countries in the region and several cartographically advanced countries from outside the region as well as by observers from the specialized agencies and interested international organizations. One of the recommendations of the Bangkok Conference was that a fourth United Nations Regional Cartographic Conference for Asia and the Far East be convened in 1964.

Impressed with the usefulness of the regional cartographic conferences for Asia and the Far East, the Council requested the Secretary-General in 1961, in cooperation with the Executive-Secretary of the Economic Commission for Africa and in consultation with the interested specialized agencies, to convene in 1963 a regional cartographic conference for Africa.

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE IN CARTOGRAPHY

At their request, governments have received technical assistance in surveying and appraising existing and future needs in cartographic

facilities; in establishing national cartographic centers, and, in particular, photogrammetric departments, including installation of equipment and training of personnel; in introducing techniques of photo-interpretation and airborne geophysical surveys in connection with resource development projects; in carrying out topical mapping projects and other studies, such as geological maps, and in preparing economic atlases; in setting up cadastral services required for modern urban and rural development; and in training technical personnel, through provision of fellowships and by organizing pilot courses and seminars, notably the Seminar on Topographic Mapping as a Means for Economic Development convened in cooperation with the Government of Iran and held in Teheran in 1957) and the Seminar on Aerial Survey Methods and Equipment (held in Bangkok in early 1960).

SOCIAL, HUMANITARIAN AND CULTURAL QUESTIONS

Social Policy and Development

Reports on the World Social Situation

The General Assembly in 1949 invited the Economic and Social Council to consider drafting a general report on the world social and cultural situation. At the request of the Council a preliminary report limited to the social situation was prepared by the Secretary-General in cooperation with the specialized agencies concerned—ILO, FAO, UNESCO, and WHO—and submitted in 1952 to the Social Commission and the Council. The Council considered that this report should be supplemented by a survey of measures taken to improve conditions, and a report on the main trends in social programs over the ten-year period 1945-55 was issued in 1955. In 1957 a second *Report on the World Social Situation* gave special attention to the problem of urbanization. The *Report* issued in 1959 reviewed international as well as national measures undertaken since 1953 to improve social conditions and formed the basis of discussions on social policy by the Social Commission, the Council, and the General Assembly. The 1961 *Report* included a brief survey of major trends in the world social situation and a study of balanced economic and social development. The Council decided that an analytic report on the world social situation should be issued biennially, beginning in 1963, covering, in alternate editions, social conditions and social programs, on the one hand, and urgent comprehensive social problems, on the other. The 1963 *Report* summarized trends in social conditions and social programs since 1950 and included regional chapters. The theme "motivation for development" was proposed for the 1965 *Report*.

Balanced Economic and Social Development

Increasing attention has been given by the United Nations and the specialized agencies to the important question of integrated and balanced social and economic development. In this connection, more emphasis is being placed on planning, research, and training as means of achieving these goals. The General Assembly, the Economic and Social Council, and the Social Commission have in recent years repeatedly emphasized the importance of this problem and have adopted a number of resolutions reflecting their interest.

The Council, considering the 1957 *Report on the World Social Situation*, expressed concern about the uneven progress achieved within and between countries and agreed that the problem of balance was an important factor in development and should receive special attention.

In 1959, the Council gave further consideration to the social aspect of economic planning and to the different stages of development programming designed to meet more adequately the interrelated problems of population growth, urbanization, and housing. The Assembly reaffirmed the high priority accorded by the Council to studies of the problem, and the Secretary-General and the specialized agencies were asked to include social experts in the planning and implementation of development projects.

The 1961 *Report on the World Social Situation* was mostly devoted to a consideration of the subject. The interrelations between economic and social development were emphasized as was the problem of the definition of "balanced" development and the actual patterns of development in different countries as revealed by different social and economic indicators. Several country case studies were prepared and circular notes were sent by the Secretary-General to governments requesting information on the difficulties encountered and the experience gained in the implementation of programs of social development.

In 1962, the Social Commission, the Council, and the Assembly approved the general acceptance of the principle of planning as essential for bringing about the rapid economic and social growth of developing countries and particularly for the achievement of balanced development. In this connection, the Council again recommended that United Nations organs intensify their work by organizing seminars in various regions on specific aspects of planning and by training of national personnel. Seminars have been held in the Middle East, Asia, and Latin America and others are planned for Africa and Europe. The Council also unanimously adopted a resolution, on the recommendation of the Social Commission, requesting the Secretary-General to prepare for the consideration of the Commission a report setting out, for the use of governments, methods of determining the appropriate allocation of resources to the various social sectors and

summarizing various organizational arrangements for social planning in relation to development goals.

The Commission, in 1963, approved the increasing attention being given to comprehensive development planning and noted that assistance was being provided to a number of countries for various social sectors of their development plans through advisory groups, demographic surveys, and the training of senior officials.

The importance being given to this subject is further emphasized by regional institutes for economic and social development planning being established in Asia, Africa, and Latin America, and the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, made possible by a gift of the Government of the Netherlands. The Institute is expected to conduct research into problems and policies of social development and into relationships between social and economic development during different phases of economic growth.

Definition and International Comparability of Living Standards

The lack of generally accepted definitions of standards and levels of living, and of yardsticks by which these standards and levels can be internationally compared and changes in them measured, has made for serious difficulties in the preparation of international surveys of social conditions, as well as in efforts to assess the effects of technical assistance programs.

The United Nations and the specialized agencies collaborated on a report published in 1953 entitled *International Definition and Measurement of Standards and Levels of Living* which concluded that there was no single index of the levels of living as a whole that could be applied internationally. A series of components and indicators was suggested to measure and define levels of living.

In 1961, the Social Commission considered a progress report on this subject, and agreed that the process of reaching agreement on specific components and indicators for the measurement of levels of living would be a continuous one. The Commission considered that the work accomplished had nevertheless reached a stage where the Secretary-General should be requested to distribute the first part of the progress report on international definition and measurement of levels of living to member states for their interim guidance. A *Compendium of Social Statistics*, dealing with basic statistical indicators showing changes and trends in levels of living over the decade 1950-60, was issued in coordination with the 1963 *Report on the World Social Situation*.

Income Distribution

The 1957 *Report on the World Social Situation* drew attention to the varying increases in national income especially in the less developed

countries, to the fact that these increases were often accompanied by a growing unevenness in the distribution of this income within the population, and to the existence of a growing dissatisfaction among groups that have not benefited from the rising incomes. Accordingly, the Social Commission, the Council, and the Assembly have at various times stressed the importance of this problem.

In the program of work adopted by the Commission in 1961 and approved by the Council, it was agreed that the United Nations, with the assistance of the regional commissions and the specialized agencies, should undertake a study of the social aspects of changes in income distribution in selected countries. Studies on this subject in relation to economic growth in selected countries were initiated and further studies are planned. Again, at its session in 1963, the Commission noted that the subject was closely linked to the theme proposed for the 1965 *Report on the World Social Situation* and decided to give high priority to more extensive studies of the problem.

Social Aspects of Urbanization and Industrialization

The rapid growth of towns in both the underdeveloped and developed countries of the world, resulting from the population explosion as well as from migration to urban centers, and the accompanying worsening in the unemployment and social situation of these towns, have been of major concern to the Economic and Social Council. Accordingly, the Council requested the Secretary-General to give special attention in the 1957 *Report on the World Social Situation* to the problems of peoples undergoing rapid transition, especially through urbanization. Seminars on urbanization jointly sponsored by the United Nations and UNESCO have been held by the regional commissions.

A Social Commission resolution provides for assistance to be given to governments, on request, for the establishment of national centers to deal with urbanization problems; for individual assistance to be provided for surveys and pilot projects required for urban development programs; for the review of case studies and comparative analyses of experience in decentralization as a policy for dealing with social, physical, and economic problems of urbanization; and for the compilation and analysis of urbanization policies within the framework of national economic and social development planning.

In 1962 a workshop on the subject was held in Addis Ababa, and a European seminar on Urban Development Policy and Planning was held in Warsaw. A workshop on Administrative Problems of Rapid Urban Growth in the Arab States was also held in 1963 by the United Nations Division for Public Administration in collaboration with the Government of Lebanon.

For some time, the Commission has paid special attention to the social aspects of industrialization. This interest is reflected in the Com-

mission's work program for 1963-65, which provides for studies of social factors in industrial development planning, case studies of cities and localities that have gone through or are going through rapid industrialization, and studies of incentives to industrial growth. An interregional seminar on the social aspects of industrialization will be held in 1964.

Social Services and Social Welfare

Increasing attention has been given by the United Nations to the organization and administration of social services. In 1962 the Economic and Social Council called for a reappraisal of the United Nations social service program with a view to strengthening it. The Council also recommended that the social welfare sector should be accorded a definite role within the framework of the United Nations Development Decade and in the establishment of national and regional development institutes.

Family, Youth, and Child Welfare

Out of the dual heritage of the League of Nations and the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (UNRRA), an extensive social welfare program of practical assistance to governments has been developed by the United Nations.

In the first two years, the most pressing calls were for emergency action to meet the needs of children and families in areas devastated by war. Since then the General Assembly and the Council have recognized that international action in family and child welfare should be the primary responsibility of the Council's Social Commission.

Implementation of this policy has led to a gradual reorientation of all aspects of the United Nations social welfare programs, including family and child welfare. Cooperation with UNICEF has been a major aspect of the United Nations family and child welfare program.

Direct assistance to governments in strengthening family and child welfare programs is normally provided through the services of social welfare advisers, the granting of fellowships, and the organization of technical seminars and workshops. Expert missions on family and child welfare have been made available upon request from several governments. The exchange of information on common problems, the pooling of experience, and the sharing of techniques have been possible on an increasingly large scale through conferences, seminars, and working groups on child welfare, training of personnel, and organization and administration of social service programs. A number of such meetings have been held in Asia and the Far East, the Middle East, Europe, Central America, and Africa.

Maintenance of Family Levels of Living

A report on *Economic Measures in Favor of the Family*, issued in 1952, contains summaries of laws and administrative regulations in force on June 30, 1949, in twenty-four countries; it surveys the principal forms of economic advantages available to the family through those laws and regulations. On the recommendation of the Social Commission in May 1955, the United Nations convened a group of experts, in cooperation with ILO, FAO, WMO, and UNESCO, which prepared a *Report on a Coordinated Policy Regarding Family Levels of Living*, which was published in 1957.

Rehabilitation of the Handicapped

The General Assembly, by adopting in December 1946 a resolution concerning the establishment of the program of advisory social welfare services, included rehabilitation of the handicapped as an area in which technical assistance should be made available to governments. The provision of assistance in the form of expert advice, fellowships, and technical equipment began in 1947.

To strengthen international cooperation in this field the Social Commission, at its December 1949 session, requested the Secretary-General to draft a comprehensive program to be carried out by the United Nations and appropriate specialized agencies in cooperation with interested non-governmental organizations. This program was approved in its final form by the Council in 1952.

The purpose of the coordinated international program was to assist governments, at their request, to develop adequate services for the prevention of disability and the rehabilitation of handicapped persons. In recent years emphasis has been on technical assistance to underdeveloped countries in Asia, the Middle East, Africa, and Latin America.

A close working relationship exists between the United Nations, the specialized agencies, and several international non-governmental organizations. In 1953 these non-governmental organizations established the Conference of World Organizations Interested in the Handicapped, which acts as a coordinating body among twenty-six international non-governmental organizations and maintains liaison with the United Nations and the specialized agencies.

Reference Services in the Social Field

In 1955 renewed emphasis was placed on the need for collecting and disseminating current information on developments in the social field. A social reference center had been established in 1947, primarily to carry on technical information services in child welfare transferred

from the League of Nations, and had been expanded in 1952 to include information on activities in family and child welfare. This center was reorganized as a unit collecting basic information and reference material on all aspects of United Nations work in the social field: social policy and development; population; social services; community development; housing, building, and planning; and the prevention of crime and the treatment of offenders.

As a means of disseminating information, the Social Welfare Information Series was published from 1946 until 1955, when it was discontinued. It included information submitted by governments on current literature and national conferences held in their respective countries on social welfare matters, particularly those covered by the program of the Social Commission. This information is now included in the *International Social Service Review*.

The compilation and publication of directories have been undertaken with the collaboration of governments, voluntary organizations, and schools of social work. Thus, in 1950, a list of schools of social work was included as an annex to the study *Training for Social Work*; this list was revised and brought up to date and published in 1955 as an *International Directory of Schools of Social Work*. An international directory of welfare organizations covering forty-eight countries and about 1,800 organizations, was issued in 1953.

Training of Social Welfare Personnel

A study entitled *Training for Social Work—An International Survey* provides a detailed description and analysis of the methods of training in educational institutions of various countries. The second international survey on training for social work was published in 1955. It is directed more particularly to the training of social workers in organized schools of social work at the graduate and undergraduate levels. The report is further supplemented by an *International Directory of Schools of Social Work*. The third survey was issued in 1958 and the fourth will be published in 1963.

The Economic and Social Council recommended that social work, in principle, should be a professional function performed by men and women who have received professional training, and that the training, whether provided at universities or special schools of social work, should be of the highest quality to do justice to both the variety and the unity of social work.

As part of a survey of methods of increasing the supply of qualified personnel, however, and in view of the insufficient number of professional workers as well as the particular needs of underdeveloped areas, the Social Commission and the Council recognized the importance of training auxiliary and community workers.

Meetings of groups of experts have been held since 1956 to dis-

cuss various problems relating to social work training and regional meetings on this subject have been arranged.

Direct assistance continued to be given to governments in providing experts to advise nationals of various countries in the training of social welfare personnel in their countries, in the organization and administration of social welfare services, and in case work and group work methods.

Social Defense

Prevention of Crime and Treatment of Offenders

In 1946 the Economic and Social Council instructed the Social Commission to consider the development of effective international machinery to study the prevention of crime and the treatment of offenders on a broad international basis and to consult with the International Penal and Penitentiary Commission (IPPC) on the subject.

The Council in August 1948 considered that the United Nations should assume leadership in the promotion of work in this field, making the fullest use of the knowledge and experience of competent international organizations; thus, after negotiations between the United Nations and IPPC, an agreement was reached providing for the dissolution of the latter body in 1951.

In 1960 the social defense activities were reorganized, with the United Nations functions in this field divided between Headquarters and its Geneva Office. The Council decided that technical assistance in the field of social defense should be strengthened, particularly in the less developed countries, and stressed the importance of establishing regional social defense institutes in the Far East and in Latin America.

Technical assistance in this field takes the form of provision of expert services, fellowships, working groups and seminars, and the establishment of training institutes, one of which is already functioning in Japan.

INDIVIDUAL CORRESPONDENTS

In March 1961 the Economic and Social Council invited all member states and all former members of IPPC which were not members of the United Nations to appoint one or more persons of expert professional or scientific qualifications and experience in the field to act as individual correspondents of the Department of Social Affairs. Individual correspondents under this plan have the responsibility of keeping the Secretariat informed of current developments relating to the prevention of crime and the treatment of offenders in their respective countries, of collecting information requested for studies and

research carried out by the United Nations, and of otherwise assisting the Secretary-General in carrying out the Organization's program in the field. At the end of 1962, there were 140 correspondents in fifty-four countries.

REGIONAL CONFERENCES

Periodic technical conferences have been organized in different regions of the world in the form either of meetings of national correspondents of the region or of technical assistance seminars. These conferences are designed to study questions in the field of social defense on a regional basis and provide opportunities for exchanges of information and experiences in dealing with problems in this field.

WORLD CONGRESSES

The first United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders was held in Geneva from August 22 to September 3, 1955. It adopted a set of Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners and recommendations on the selection and training of personnel for penal and correctional institutes, on open institutions, and on prison labor, expressing the hope that technical assistance to governments would be provided in order to implement the various recommendations. The Congress also discussed extensively the prevention of juvenile delinquency. The second Congress was held in London from August 8 to 29, 1960. It considered various measures for the prevention of juvenile delinquency and for the prevention of crime resulting from social changes accompanying economic development in less developed countries. The third Congress will be held in Stockholm in 1965.

INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF CRIMINAL POLICY

Since 1952 the United Nations Secretariat has issued the *International Review of Criminal Policy*. The *Review* is designed to serve as an authoritative international channel for the dissemination and exchange of technical information in the field of social defense.

COORDINATION OF ACTIVITIES OF INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

In 1948 the United Nations established under its auspices a committee consisting of representatives of the interested specialized agencies and the principal international non-governmental organizations concerned with the prevention of crime and the treatment of offenders. Its meetings have been devoted to coordination and to the

mutual exchange of information on the activities of participating organizations.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

A comprehensive questionnaire on this subject was sent to governments in 1949, and the replies received were used by the Secretariat for the preparation of national monographs. On the basis of these and of supplementary information, regional comparative surveys of juvenile delinquency were prepared. The problem of juvenile delinquency has also appeared as a subject for discussion on the agenda of regional conferences as well as on the agenda of the first and second United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders. Various studies on the subject have been published or are under preparation.

PROBATION

Upon the recommendation of the Social Commission, the Council in August 1951 adopted a resolution urging governments to give favorable consideration to the adoption and development of probation as a major instrument of policy in crime prevention and the treatment of offenders.

Several studies dealing with the matter have been published, and a European seminar on probation, under the technical assistance program, was held in London in October 1952.

CAPITAL PUNISHMENT

The General Assembly, in 1959, invited the Council to initiate a study on the question of capital punishment. Following this request, the Council asked the Secretary-General in 1960 to prepare a factual review of the various aspects of this question. In December 1961, the Council agreed to consider this question in the spring of 1963, and a report entitled *Capital Punishment* has been prepared and reviewed by the United Nations Consultative Committee on Social Defense.

OTHER STUDIES

Besides those already mentioned, the Secretariat has also published studies on the *Indeterminate Sentence* and *Parole and After Care*, as well as a report on *Jail Administration in India*. A study, *Prison Labor*, was carried out and published in connection with the United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders. Other studies carried out by the United Nations relate to criminal statistics, the prevention of types of criminality resulting from social

changes and accompanying economic development in less developed countries, short-term imprisonment, and the treatment of types of offenders against whom society needs particular protection.

STANDARD MINIMUM RULES FOR THE TREATMENT OF PRISONERS

An original set of rules, prepared by IPPC and endorsed by the League of Nations in 1934, was followed by a revision made by IPPC before its dissolution. The revised draft was discussed during 1952-54 at the regional conferences. The Secretariat prepared a consolidated draft, which was submitted to the first United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, held in 1955. A final text of the Standard Minimum Rules adopted unanimously by that conference, was submitted to the eleventh session of the Social Commission in May 1957, which recommended adoption of the Rules.

The Economic and Social Council approved these Rules in 1957 and endorsed the recommendation of the Congress on the selection and training of personnel for penal and correctional institutions. It also recommended that governments give favorable consideration to the adoption of these Rules and give them the widest possible publicity.

INSTITUTES FOR THE PREVENTION OF CRIME AND TREATMENT OF OFFENDERS

The Asia and the Far East Institute for the Prevention of Crime and Treatment of Offenders in Japan, for which the United Nations is providing the services of a director and a senior adviser, was established in late 1961. Preparations continued for the establishment of a similar institute to serve the Latin American region.

Traffic in Persons and Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others

The Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others was approved by the General Assembly in December 1949. As a consequence of this action, a new questionnaire was prepared and approved by the Social Commission and the Economic and Social Council in 1951. Following a decision of the Commission in 1955, later approved by the Council, the Secretariat is currently presenting information selected from answers to the questionnaire in the *International Review of Criminal Policy*.

A study on traffic in persons and prostitution was issued in 1959. The Council, on the basis of the report and the recommendations of

the Social Commission, asked governments to adopt measures designed to eliminate causes leading to traffic in persons and to prostitution.

Community Development

In the operation of the United Nations and the specialized agencies' technical assistance programs, an increasing role has been assigned to approaches and techniques seeking to stimulate local initiative and leadership. Governmental agencies make special efforts to provide locally such technical services as child and family welfare, health, and education in a coordinated and integrated manner, combining outside assistance with organized local self-determination and effort. Such methods and techniques are often identified under the broad term "community organization and development."

As the interest in community development programs increased, the Administrative Committee on Coordination (ACC) undertook the clarification of the concept of community development and its relationship to balanced and integrated economic and social development and of the role of various component services in this field. Informal regional interagency meetings and regular interagency consultations took place in several countries.

The Social Commission in 1957 stressed the need for more effective coordination at the country level, further study of essential elements of the community development process and of its extension to urban areas, and the spreading of information and understanding of community development. In the summer of 1957 the Economic and Social Council recommended to member governments several major steps for improving community development and strengthening international action for that purpose, and the Assembly, the same year, called for the full participation of women in community development programs.

The research work being carried on by the United Nations is based in large measure on material supplied by member and non-member governments and non-governmental organizations, as well as on the findings of special survey missions. Several studies were published, among them *Social Progress through Community Development*, which contains a set of tentative principles of community development, and a *Study Kit on Training for Community Development*. Attention has also been given to the problem of the applicability of community development principles to urban areas and to public administration problems involved in community development. The role of social services in this field was extensively dealt with in the *International Social Service Review*, No. 6, published in 1960. A study entitled *Community Development in Urban Areas* was issued in 1961.

United Nations teams of community development experts have been organized to provide advice and assistance, and expert services and assistance have been given and fellowships granted to a large number of countries, in establishing community development programs. Pilot projects, seminars, workshops, and study tours have been organized in several countries. The first African Training Course in Community Development, held in Dakar from November 1 to 30, 1961, was designed for African officials holding supervisory and administrative positions in community development and related fields. Workshops on community development were held in Tunis, in 1961, and in Cairo, in 1962.

To give effect to a recommendation of the General Assembly and in view of the emphasis placed by the Economic and Social Council, at its summer session in 1950, on the importance of raising the living standards of the aboriginal populations of the American continent, a joint field program was established to improve health, agricultural, educational, and other conditions of the Indian population on the Andean altiplano. The Andean Indian Program, whose goal is the integration of indigenous populations into the social and economic life of certain Latin American countries, is an interagency undertaking initiated by ILO, and established in response to the requests for technical assistance of the Governments of Bolivia, Ecuador, and Peru (*see page 478*).

Housing, Building, and Planning

Problems of housing, building, and planning receive considerable attention on the part of the United Nations. At its first session in 1946, the General Assembly noted the magnitude and gravity of housing problems in various parts of the world. It recommended that the Economic and Social Council expedite the study of these problems on the international level, and that it consider holding a meeting of experts to advise on the establishment of an international mechanism which would encourage and coordinate research and the exchange of information among nations and would define standards and levels of housing capable of general application.

The Council, in 1949, requested the Secretary-General to formulate a long-range integrated program in housing, physical planning, and building, covering social, economic, technological, and administrative aspects. This program was prepared in consultation with the specialized agencies and intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations concerned and was approved by the Council in 1950.

The continuing housing shortage throughout the world and the serious social consequences resulting from it led both the Assembly and the Council in 1952 to reiterate the urgent need for international

action and practical measures to assist governments in increasing the supply of housing for lower-income groups, with special emphasis on developing practical methods of financing housing and community improvement programs from domestic or external sources. Special attention was also drawn to the need for further development of regional activities, as well as national technical assistance operations in those fields.

At its ninth and tenth sessions the Social Commission again emphasized the importance of financing of housing and community improvement programs and of regional (physical) planning as a requisite to the balanced development of economic, social, and technological resources within the national framework. The Council approved these findings and suggested the holding of regional meetings of experts in the financing of housing and community improvement.

In 1959 the Council approved the principles and general lines of the Long-Range Program of Concerted International Action in the Field of Low-Cost Housing and Related Community Facilities as set out in the Secretary-General's report requested by it earlier. The Assembly, later that year, stressed the importance of government action and of technical assistance in the field of low-cost housing and also indicated the need for dissemination of technical information in this field.

In 1960 the Assembly requested the Secretary-General to investigate the possibility of obtaining technical services, equipment, and funds for establishing pilot projects on low-cost housing and related community facilities and asked the Council to investigate the domestic and international financing aspects of the problem; it also asked member states to indicate to the United Nations the areas in which outside assistance was most needed.

In 1961 the Council decided to convene an *ad hoc* group of ten experts to advise the Social Commission on certain questions pertaining to programs for the extension of housing and basic community facilities and on techniques for mobilizing national resources for the extension of low-cost housing and urban development.

In 1962, the Council, on the recommendation of the Social Commission, established a Committee on Housing, Building and Planning, composed of twenty-one members. The Council also recommended that the Secretary-General should be authorized to provide additional staff to carry out the research necessary for the effective development of the housing and urbanization programs of the United Nations. The Committee held its first session in early 1963 and the report of the session was considered by the Social Commission in May.

The United Nations publishes *Housing, Building and Planning*, formerly known as *Housing and Community Development*, and even earlier as *Housing and Town and Country Planning*.

Migration

It has long been recognized that migration constitutes a problem requiring international action. While bilateral arrangements on migration, for the purpose of employment and land settlement, have played an important role, more and more frequently governments have called for the help of international organizations.

In the implementation of this program, the United Nations deals with the social, economic, and demographic aspects of migration; ILO with migratory movements in connection with its manpower program; FAO with land settlement as an important aspect of migration; and WHO and UNESCO with those aspects falling within their respective competences. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees has an interest in the question, inasmuch as it is closely connected with his mandate of protection of refugees and the solution of their problems.

The Economic and Social Council very early recognized the need to avoid duplication in the work of the different organs of the United Nations and the specialized agencies. Thus, in March 1947, it invited the Population and Social Commissions, after appropriate consultations, to report to the Council on a practical plan for allocating functions among the various organs concerned in the field of migration. The recommendations of the Commissions were considered by the Council in 1948 and resulted in a resolution allocating responsibilities in the field, including a working arrangement between the Secretariat of the United Nations and ILO. It also provided the basis for achieving the coordination of these responsibilities through a Technical Working Group on Migration, established under the auspices of the Administrative Committee on Coordination (ACC). This group is now convened as appropriate and serviced by ILO, which assumes, under the ACC, the responsibility at the inter-secretariat level for promoting co-operation and coordination in this field.

In following up the prewar endeavors of the League of Nations and of the International Institute for the Unification of Private Law toward the solution of this problem and as a result of a study prepared for the Economic and Social Council, the texts of two international conventions have been drawn up with a view to ensuring that destitute families receive support—without delay, with a minimum of formalities, and free of costs—from the head of the family when he is living in another country. One of these conventions—Convention on Enforcement Abroad of Maintenance Orders—to be applied in countries whose laws permit the execution of foreign judgments, was approved by the Council in 1954 with the recommendation to governments that they use it as a guide for the preparation of bilateral treaties or uniform legislation to be enacted by individual orders. The

other instrument—Convention on the Recovery Abroad of Maintenance—whose objective is to facilitate a support order in the country where the person responsible for the family's support lives, was adopted on June 20, 1956, at a United Nations Conference on Maintenance Obligations. It came into force on May 25, 1957.

A compilation of laws relating to the legal situation of immigrants in some principal countries of immigration was completed for the United Nations by the International Institute for the Unification of Private Law in 1953. Another compilation, completed in 1954, covered the international instruments related to the same question. *A Handbook of International Measures for the Protection of Migrants and General Conditions to be Observed in Their Settlement* was published in 1953.

In implementing its program in the field of migration, the United Nations and the interested specialized agencies maintain a close cooperation with non-governmental organizations which are active in this field. The Council in 1948 requested the Secretary-General to consult with the interested specialized agencies and to seek their advice in order to ascertain whether they could make arrangements for co-ordinating their respective services. The United Nations, together with I.L.O., has sponsored the biennial sessions of the Conference of Non-Governmental Organizations Interested in Migration.

Population Questions

Considering the growing importance of population problems and the mounting interest in the role of the United Nations in this connection, the Population Commission, in 1961, presented to the Economic and Social Council its views concerning the interests and objectives of the United Nations in that field and a summary of the accomplishments to date.

In a statement concerning objectives, the Commission repeated the view, expressed in its previous reports, that it was the responsibility of each government to decide its own policies and devise its own programs of action for dealing with population problems. The Commission added that it was in the interest of the United Nations that decisions on national policies be taken and that national programs be planned in the light of knowledge of the relevant facts, and that the programs should be adequate to ensure satisfactory economic and social progress. The role of the United Nations was to encourage and assist governments, especially those of the less developed countries, in obtaining relevant information and to give technical assistance, as requested by governments, for national projects of research, experimentation, and action for dealing with population problems.

In summing up accomplishments during the fourteen years since

its first session, the Commission emphasized the scientific value and the practical utility—to governments of less developed countries—of the Secretariat's technical publications on population trends and related problems and on methods of demographic studies. The Commission also stressed the value of training programs in methods of demographic analysis for personnel of underdeveloped countries, which had been developed as regional projects of technical assistance, and of the regional and interregional conferences and seminars on population questions which had been sponsored by the United Nations. Only eight governments had so far requested any technical assistance for national projects but in each instance the assistance requested had been provided.

Research, studies, and other publications in the population field, designed to help governments formulate their policies, have been undertaken. A report on the interrelationship of demographic, economic, and social factors entitled *The Determinants and Consequences of Population Trends* was published in 1954, followed, the same year, by a short, non-technical summary of certain aspects of the report entitled *Population Growth and Standards of Living in Underdeveloped Countries*. In 1959 the Economic and Social Council asked the Secretary-General to cooperate with underdeveloped countries in carrying out demographic pilot studies and also to study internal migration in relation to economic and social development. Pilot studies were carried out jointly with a number of countries. Several studies were also published dealing with such matters as statistics pertaining to infant and early childhood mortality, methodological aspects in measuring infant mortality, and analyses of mortality rates in underdeveloped areas. A study on trends in fertility in industrialized countries was published in 1957, and several studies and reports have dealt specifically with migrants. In 1961 a study, *Sex and Age Patterns of Participation in Economic Activities*, was published in consultation with ILO. Finally, a number of papers on international population statistics were published as well as papers on population estimates by sex and age in various parts of the world.

A *Multilingual Demographic Dictionary* has been prepared with the cooperation of the International Union for the Scientific Study of Population, and several regional demographic seminars have been held in different parts of the world. Regional demographic training and research centers have been established in Bombay, India, and in Santiago, Chile; others will shortly be established to meet the needs of Africa.

World Population Conferences

The World Population Conference, which was held in Rome in the summer of 1954, was a major scientific meeting attended by more

than 450 experts. Since the purpose of the Conference was an exchange of views and experience among experts, no resolutions or recommendations for action were adopted.

Upon a recommendation of the Population Commission, the Economic and Social Council, on April 28, 1961, approved the holding of a second world population conference in 1964 or 1965, under the auspices of the United Nations and in close collaboration with the International Union for the Scientific Study of Population and interested specialized agencies.

Population Growth and Economic Development

The interrelationship between population growth and economic development was considered by the General Assembly at its seventeenth session in 1962. In a resolution on the subject, the Assembly requested the Secretary-General to conduct an inquiry among governments concerning the particular problems confronting them as a result of the reciprocal action of economic development and population change. The Assembly also asked the Economic and Social Council to intensify its studies on the interrelationships of population growth and economic and social development and to report on its findings to the Assembly not later than 1964.

International Cultural and Scientific Cooperation

In February and again in November 1957 the General Assembly invited all member states to promote wider cultural and scientific cooperation, recognizing its value in strengthening international confidence and in maintaining peace. UNESCO and the other specialized agencies concerned were invited to include in their annual reports to the Economic and Social Council a statement of their views and activities in this field and other relevant information. In the summer of 1957 the Council urged the extension of international cooperation in the social field through the development of personal contacts and exchange of experience among experts. It considered that international cooperation in the cultural and scientific field would facilitate the development of mutual understanding between peoples.

In 1959 both the Council and the General Assembly concerned themselves with the question of exchange of technical and scientific experience, stressing its importance for accelerating economic development. The Assembly in particular asked the economically and technically more advanced countries to help and support the less developed countries in acquiring scientific and technical knowledge. In 1960 the Council received from UNESCO a survey on international relations and exchanges in the fields of education, science, and culture

prepared in response to resolutions adopted by the Council and the General Assembly in 1958 and 1959, respectively. The Council invited UNESCO to undertake a further study of the specific problems and the measures to achieve the goals indicated in the survey.

The Council and the Assembly, also in 1960, considered a survey, prepared in response to a request made by the latter in 1958, relating to the main trends of inquiry in the field of the natural sciences, the dissemination of scientific knowledge, and the application of such knowledge for peaceful ends. The survey, *Main Trends of Inquiry in the Field of Natural Sciences, Dissemination of Scientific Knowledge and Application of Such Knowledge for Peaceful Ends*, was given detailed consideration by the Council at its mid-1961 session. The Council asked the Secretary-General and the Directors General of UNESCO and IAEA to bring the survey to the notice of scientific circles throughout the world.

Measures Concerning Earthquakes

The Economic and Social Council has considered measures to be taken in connection with the earthquakes which occurred in Morocco, and Chile in 1960, and in Iran in 1962. Various recommendations were made to member states, to the Secretary-General, UNICEF, the Special Fund, WHO, and other specialized agencies on rendering assistance and giving urgent attention to the problems arising from these earthquakes.

The Council also decided in 1960 that a study should be undertaken by the Secretary-General in cooperation with the specialized agencies concerned of the ways and means of reducing to a minimum the damage resulting from earthquakes and seismic waves.

Human Rights

One of the purposes of the United Nations, according to Article 1 of the Charter, is to achieve international cooperation in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion.

From its very beginning the United Nations has concerned itself with the promotion and protection of human rights. During its first ten years activities in this field were directed primarily, although not exclusively, toward defining "human rights and fundamental freedoms" and establishing broad principles and general standards, chiefly through the adoption of international instruments. While such activities are continuing, a new program has been developed since 1956 which lays emphasis on the value of the exchange of knowledge and experience in promoting human rights. The three main features

of the new program are: (1) a system of periodic (triennial) reporting by governments on human rights; (2) a series of studies of specific rights or groups of rights; and (3) a program of advisory services in the field of human rights.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights

The Commission on Human Rights began its work in January 1947 under the chairmanship of Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt. The Commission devoted itself first to the preparation of a declaration of human rights and next to the drafting of a covenant on civil and political rights and of a covenant on economic, social, and cultural rights.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was prepared by the Commission in 1947 and 1948 and adopted by the General Assembly on December 10, 1948. Of the fifty-eight nations represented at the Assembly session, forty-eight voted in favor of the Declaration, none voted against, eight abstained, and two were absent.

In thirty articles the Declaration sets forth basic rights and fundamental freedoms, to which all men and women everywhere in the world are entitled, without any discrimination. The rights and freedoms thus set forth include the right to life, liberty, and security of person; freedom from slavery and servitude; freedom from arbitrary arrest and detention; the right to a fair trial by an independent and impartial tribunal; the right to be presumed innocent until proved guilty; inviolability of the home and secrecy of correspondence; freedom of movement and residence; the right to a nationality; the right to marry and to found a family; the right to own property; freedom of thought, conscience, and religion; freedom of opinion and expression; freedom of peaceful assembly and association; the right to vote and to participate in government; the right to social security; the right to work; the right to an adequate standard of life; the right to education; and the right to participate in the cultural life of the community.

The Assembly proclaimed the Universal Declaration as "a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations" and called upon all member states and all peoples to promote and secure the effective recognition and observance of the rights and freedoms set forth therein.

On December 4, 1950, the General Assembly passed a resolution inviting all states and interested organizations to observe December 10 of each year as Human Rights Day, a practice since adopted in many parts of the world.

In the years since its adoption, the Declaration has exercised a profound influence upon the minds of men. It has been translated into all the main languages of the world. The Declaration or individual articles from it are frequently quoted in United Nations resolutions as

setting standards. The constitutions of many countries, including most countries which have recently gained their independence, reflect its influence; it has also influenced national legislations and jurisdictions.

The Declaration has inspired a number of international conventions concluded under the auspices of the United Nations and the specialized agencies. Examples are the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees; the Convention Relating to the Status of Stateless Persons; the Convention on the Political Rights of Women; the Convention on the Nationality of Married Women; the Supplementary Convention on Slavery, the Slave Trade, and Institutions and Practices Similar to Slavery; the Convention concerning the Abolition of Forced Labor; the Convention concerning Discrimination in Respect of Employment and Occupation; and the Convention against Discrimination in Education.

In the peace treaty concluded at San Francisco in 1951, Japan declared its intention of striving to realize the objectives of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms of 1950 invokes the Declaration, and its substantive provisions were based on an early version of the United Nations draft International Covenant on Human Rights. In the 1954 agreement relating to the Free Territory of Trieste, the Italian and Yugoslav authorities undertook to act in accordance with the principles of the Universal Declaration in the administration of their respective areas.

The human rights program that has developed and is developing in the United Nations is, to a large extent, conceived within the framework of the Universal Declaration. In fact, it may be said that the purpose of the program as a whole is to promote the observance and implementation of the rights and freedoms set forth in the Declaration.

Draft International Covenants on Human Rights

Once the Universal Declaration was completed in 1948, the Commission on Human Rights concentrated on the draft international covenants, but only in 1954 did it finish the preliminary texts of a draft covenant on civil and political rights and a draft covenant on economic, social, and cultural rights. These were sent, through the Economic and Social Council, to the General Assembly.

In 1952 the Assembly decided that the two covenants should be adopted and opened for signature simultaneously.

In the preliminary drafts completed in 1954 by the Commission on Human Rights both covenants contained a preamble, an article on the right of peoples to self-determination, general provisions, substantive articles, measures of implementation, and final clauses. The preambles, the articles on self-determination, and the final clauses were identical or very similar in the two covenants. There was, how-

ever, a significant difference between them with respect to the obligations which states parties to the covenants would assume. For civil and political rights they would undertake immediately to respect and ensure the rights defined in the covenant, and, where not already provided, states parties would undertake to take the necessary steps to adopt legislative and other measures to give effect to the rights recognized. For economic, social, and cultural rights, states parties would undertake by legislative and other measures to take steps to the maximum of their available resources with a view to achieving progressively all the rights recognized.

The articles on measures of implementation adopted by the Commission on Human Rights provided that, in the case of civil and political rights, a Human Rights Committee should be established to which a state party could complain that another state party was not giving effect to the provisions of the covenant. This committee would act primarily as a fact-finding body, making available its good offices to the states concerned with a view to reaching a friendly solution of the matter. If such a solution were not reached, either state could bring the case before the International Court of Justice. The Human Rights Committee, however, might consider complaints from states only. Petitions from individuals, groups, or organizations would not be receivable.

For the implementation of economic, social, and cultural rights, the Commission recommended that states parties make periodic reports to the Economic and Social Council on the progress they had made in achieving the observance of those rights. The Commission also recommended that reports be submitted by states parties on legislative and other measures, including judicial remedies, which were designed to give effect to civil and political rights.

In the years since the preliminary drafts of the two draft covenants were forwarded to the Assembly, the Third Committee (Social, Humanitarian, and Cultural) has adopted a preamble and an article on the right of peoples to self-determination for inclusion in both draft covenants. It has also completed substantive articles of the draft covenant on economic, social, and cultural rights dealing with the right to work; the right to just and favorable conditions of work; trade union rights; social security; rights relating to motherhood and childhood, marriage and the family; the right to adequate food, clothing, housing, and standards of living; the right to health; the right to education, including a plan for implementing compulsory primary education; and rights relating to science and culture. And it has adopted substantive articles of the draft covenant on civil and political rights covering the right to life; freedom from inhuman or degrading treatment; freedom from slavery, servitude, and forced labor; the right to liberty and freedom of movement; the right to a fair trial; non-retroactive application of criminal law; privacy of the

home, correspondence, honor, and reputation; freedom of thought, conscience, and religion; freedom of opinion and expression; the prohibition of advocacy of national, racial, or religious hostility; the right of peaceful assembly; the right of association; the rights relating to marriage; political rights; equality before the law; and the rights of minorities.

By December 1962, however, the Third Committee had not completed its consideration of the general provisions, the measures of implementation, and the final clauses relating to the two draft covenants. The Committee decided to continue its work on the draft covenants at the Assembly's eighteenth session in 1963.

The Right of Peoples to Self-Determination

As already indicated, both draft covenants contain a provision to the effect that all peoples have the right to self-determination and that, by virtue of this right, they may freely determine their political status and freely pursue their economic, social, and cultural development. The peoples may also, for their own needs, freely dispose of their natural wealth and resources without prejudice to any obligations arising out of international economic cooperation, based upon the principle of mutual benefit, and international law. In no case may a people be deprived of its own means of subsistence.

The Commission on Human Rights also discussed the question of self-determination independently of the covenants. It recommended the establishment by the General Assembly of two commissions: one to conduct a survey on the right of peoples and nations to "permanent sovereignty over their natural wealth and resources" and to make recommendations for strengthening this right; the other to examine any situation resulting from alleged denial or inadequate realization of self-determination, to provide its good offices for the peaceful rectification of any such situation, and, if no adjustment could be effected, to report the facts with appropriate recommendations to the General Assembly. In 1955, when considering the Commission's recommendations, the Economic and Social Council suggested the establishment of a third commission. This would be composed of five persons appointed by the Secretary-General to conduct a thorough study of the concept of self-determination along certain lines indicated by the Council.

The Assembly took up those proposals for the first time in 1957 but deferred further consideration until 1958, in a resolution recommending that member states should, in their relations with one another, give due respect to the right of self-determination and that states having responsibility for the administration of non-self-governing territories should promote the realization and facilitate the exercise of that right by the people of such territories.

In a resolution adopted in December 1958 the General Assembly established a nine-member commission to conduct a full survey of the status of permanent sovereignty of peoples and nations over their natural wealth and resources. (*See under Economic Questions, page 264.*)

Periodic Reports on Human Rights

In 1956 the Economic and Social Council, acting on a recommendation of the Commission on Human Rights, initiated a system of periodic reports on human rights. Under this system, states members of the United Nations and of the specialized agencies are asked to submit every three years reports describing developments and progress achieved and the measures taken by them to safeguard human liberty in their metropolitan areas and in their non-self-governing and trust territories, if any. The reports are to deal with the rights enumerated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and with the right of peoples to self-determination.

The Commission on Human Rights studies the reports in order to submit to the Council "objective and general" comments, conclusions, and recommendations on the status of human rights in the world. It is not intended that the Commission will sit in judgment and assess the successes and failures of individual governments.

On the basis of the first series of triennial reports, covering the years 1954-56, the Secretary-General suggested to the Commission that governments concentrate on reporting significant developments rather than attempting to cover seriatim all the rights set forth in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. In particular, governments should not submit texts of laws and regulations and judicial decisions but should interpret or evaluate events of significance in the field of human rights. These suggestions have been approved by the Commission.

In the second series, covering the period 1957-59, reports were received from fifty-nine governments. At its 1961 session the Commission urged states which had not submitted reports to do so by June 30, 1961, and asked the Secretary-General to draw the attention of governments to the summaries of reports received and to transmit them to the Commission on the Status of Women, to the Subcommittee on Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities, and to non-governmental organizations in consultative status. The Commission also decided to appoint a committee to examine the summaries and to make recommendations on the procedure to be followed in the future with respect to periodic reports. This committee reported to the Commission in 1962.

Studies of Specific Rights or Groups of Rights

In 1956 the Council authorized the Commission on Human Rights to make studies of specific rights or groups of rights. The studies were to stress "general developments, progress achieved, and measures taken to safeguard human liberty," and they were to contain conclusions or recommendations of a general and objective character.

The first subject chosen for study was "the right of everyone to be free from arbitrary arrest, detention, and exile" (article 9 of the Universal Declaration). The Commission appointed a committee to make the study.

In 1961 the committee submitted its report to the Commission. The report contains comparative analyses of constitutional provisions concerning arrest, detention, and exile; the grounds on which, and the procedures in accordance with which, a person suspected or accused of a criminal offence may be arrested; rights and privileges of a person under arrest or detention; remedies and sanctions against arbitrary arrest and detention; provisions relating to arrest and detention under civil and administrative laws; arrest and detention in emergency or exceptional situations; and laws relating to exile.

At the request of the Commission, the committee, in 1962, revised its report taking into account comments received from governments and including in it draft principles on freedom from arbitrary arrest and detention. The Commission, later in 1962, decided to transmit these draft principles to governments for comment and to consider the subject again at its session in 1963.

Yearbook on Human Rights

The United Nations publishes a *Yearbook on Human Rights*, that is to say, an annual volume on "law and usage relating to human rights." It contains constitutional provisions, legislative acts, executive orders, and judicial decisions which are designed to promote the observance of human rights or which may limit in any way the substance and scope of any rights. It also contains international conventions and agreements concerning human rights. By the end of 1962 the United Nations had published fourteen volumes of the *Yearbook*, covering the years 1946-59.

Advisory Services in the Field of Human Rights

Another development in the human rights program was the establishment of advisory services. In 1953 and 1954 the General Assembly, in three separate resolutions, authorized the Secretary-General to assist governments, at their request, in promoting and safeguarding the rights of women; in eradicating discrimination; in protecting minori-

ties; and in promoting freedom of information. In 1955 the Assembly incorporated these provisions in a comprehensive resolution on "advisory services in the field of human rights."

Three forms of assistance are now authorized: advisory services of experts; fellowships and scholarships; and seminars. Services are rendered at the request of governments on any human rights subject, provided it is not one for which adequate assistance is already available through the existing technical assistance programs or from one of the specialized agencies. The program is designed to give governments an opportunity to share their experiences and exchange knowledge on the promotion of human rights.

As the program has developed, emphasis has been laid on the organization of regional seminars on various human rights problems. The seminars, whose participants are persons of high standing in various professions and services, make available an exchange of experience in the protection of human rights to the end that each country may benefit from the experience of the others.

In 1961, both the Commission on Human Rights and the Economic and Social Council emphasized the need to study other effective measures which might be taken through advisory services for the protection of human rights and suggested a greater emphasis on the provision of human rights fellowships and scholarships. It was decided by the General Assembly, at its sixteenth session later that year, that the funds for the advisory services program should be increased in order to permit the award each year of a number of human rights fellowships.

Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities

Early in 1947 the Commission on Human Rights established a Sub-Commission on the Prevention of Discrimination and the Protection of Minorities to make studies and recommendations on the subject. The Sub-Commission is composed of fourteen persons selected by the Commission, subject to the consent of their governments. Members serve in their capacity as individuals and not as representatives of their governments.

The Sub-Commission assisted in the preparation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which, as adopted, includes two articles (articles 2 and 7) dealing specifically with the principle of non-discrimination. The Sub-Commission also drafted articles for insertion in the international covenants on human rights.

In 1951 the Economic and Social Council decided to discontinue the Sub-Commission, but in 1952, at the request of the General Assembly, it was re-established.

The Sub-Commission has carried out a series of studies on various aspects of discrimination. Subjects for study have included discrimi-

nation in education; discrimination in employment and occupation; discrimination in the matter of religious rights and practices; discrimination in the matter of political rights; and discrimination in respect of the right of everyone to leave any country, including his own, and to return to his country.

In January 1960 the Sub-Commission expressed its deep concern over the manifestations of anti-Semitism and other forms of hatred and prejudice which had occurred in various countries late in 1959 and early in 1960, and its belief that it was the responsibility of the United Nations to speak out against those manifestations, to ascertain the underlying facts and causes, and to recommend the most effective measures which could be taken against them. The Sub-Commission, and later the Commission on Human Rights and the General Assembly, condemned such manifestations as violations of the United Nations Charter and of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and urged states to take all appropriate action to prevent and punish them.

In January 1961 the Sub-Commission, and later the Commission, studied the question further on the basis of information obtained from governments, from UNESCO, and from non-governmental organizations in consultative status. The Commission proposed that the General Assembly recommend to governments a series of specific measures to eliminate such manifestations.

In 1962, the Assembly called on governments to rescind discriminatory laws wherever they still existed and to take legislative and other appropriate measures to combat racial prejudice and national and religious intolerance. In another resolution adopted at the same session, the Assembly requested the preparation, by the Commission on Human Rights, of a draft declaration on the elimination of all forms of racial discrimination and a draft international convention on the elimination of all forms of racial discrimination.

Two conferences of non-governmental organizations interested in the eradication of prejudice and discrimination have been held in Geneva under the auspices of the United Nations, the first in 1955 and the second in 1959. Recommendations of these conferences have been reviewed by the Sub-Commission and the Commission.

Freedom of Information

The General Assembly declared in 1946 that "freedom of information is a fundamental human right and is the touchstone of all the freedoms to which the United Nations is consecrated." In this spirit the United Nations has engaged in activities aimed at promoting freedom of information.

In 1948 a Conference on Freedom of Information was held in Geneva to examine "the rights, obligations and practices which should be included in the concept of freedom of information." The Con-

ference drew up three draft conventions: on the gathering and international transmission of news; on the institution of an international right of correction; and on freedom of information. It also adopted more than forty resolutions on professional and technical problems. Some of these were addressed directly to governments or to the media of information throughout the world; others resulted in action later by the Economic and Social Council and the Assembly.

Of the conventions proposed by the Conference, the convention on the international right of correction has been approved by the Assembly and came into force on August 24, 1962. The Assembly approved the convention dealing with the international transmission of news but has not opened it for signature. The draft convention on freedom of information, which has given rise to much controversy, is still before the Assembly, which is engaged in an article-by-article revision of it.

A Sub-Commission on Freedom of Information and of the Press, composed of twelve experts, held five sessions from 1947 to 1952. It made preliminary arrangements for the 1948 Conference on Freedom of Information, drafted articles on freedom of information for the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the covenants on human rights, drew up a draft international code of ethics for information personnel, and made recommendations on such problems as the jamming of radio broadcasts and government interference in the sale or purchase of newsprint. A number of the Sub-Commission's recommendations culminated in resolutions of the General Assembly.

Upon the abolition of the Sub-Commission in 1952, the Economic and Social Council appointed a rapporteur on freedom of information, asking him, in his personal capacity, to prepare a substantive report covering "major contemporary problems and developments in the field of information together with recommendations for practical action." The Council considered the rapporteur's report in 1954 and asked the Secretary-General to study in greater detail certain of the problems raised. The Council also adopted resolutions on such questions as the status and movement of foreign correspondents, copyright, professional training, press rates and priorities, and international broadcasting. In 1955 the Council considered the studies prepared by the Secretary-General and adopted resolutions appealing to governments to cease censoring peace-time news dispatches and to facilitate the unrestricted transmission of news by telecommunications services.

Further work was carried out by a five-member committee which the Commission on Human Rights appointed in 1957 to review the work of the United Nations and the specialized agencies in the field of freedom of information. The committee's report dealt, among other things, with the development of information media in underdeveloped countries, the free circulation of information, and the rights and responsibilities of information media.

The development of media of information in underdeveloped countries is an aspect of freedom of information which, with the special cooperation of UNESCO, the United Nations has considered in some detail. One study of this question, made by the Secretary-General in consultation with UNESCO, was presented to the Council in 1957. A subsequent initiative of the Council resulted in UNESCO's organizing a series of regional meetings intended to assist the Council in evaluating the requirements and resources needed to carry out a development program. UNESCO submitted a report to the Commission on Human Rights early in 1961, which took into account the results of two regional meetings, held in Bangkok in 1960 and in Santiago, Chile, in 1961, and the Commission passed on to the Council a series of suggestions regarding actions which might be taken.

In April 1961, the Council received a report by a special consultant on developments in the field of information since 1954.

In 1962, the Secretary-General submitted to the Commission on Human Rights the first of a series of annual reports on developments affecting freedom of information throughout the world.

And at its seventeenth session in 1962, the General Assembly adopted a resolution on international cooperation to assist in the development of information media in less developed countries.

Current United Nations interest in problems of freedom of information may be summarized as follows: work aimed at the development of information media in underdeveloped countries and carried on mainly by UNESCO; preparation, by the General Assembly, of the final text of the Convention on Freedom of Information; and Assembly consideration of a draft declaration on freedom of information which originated in the Council and which reaffirms "the principles which should be upheld and observed, and which domestic law and international conventions and other instruments for the protection of freedom of information should support and endeavor to promote."

Declaration of the Rights of the Child

The General Assembly, on November 20, 1959, unanimously adopted a Declaration of the Rights of the Child. While many of the rights and freedoms were already included in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, it was thought that the special needs of the child justified a separate declaration. The preamble to the Declaration specifically states that the child, by reason of his physical and mental immaturity, needs special safeguards and care, before as well as after birth. It also affirms that mankind owes to the child the best it has to give. Parents, individuals, voluntary organizations, local authorities, and governments are all called upon to recognize the rights and freedoms set forth and to strive for their observance by legislative and other measures.

The United Nations first indicated its interest in such a declaration in 1946. Inspired by the Declaration of Geneva which the Assembly of the League of Nations adopted on September 26, 1924, a recommendation was made to the Economic and Social Council that the Geneva Declaration "should bind the people of the world today as firmly as it did in 1924." Two of the functional commissions of the Economic and Social Council—the Social Commission and the Commission on Human Rights—were responsible for the preliminary drafting of the United Nations Declaration. The Third Committee of the General Assembly gave it its final form. Representatives of seventy-eight countries were present when the unanimous vote was taken in the Assembly. The resolution called on governments, specialized agencies, non-governmental organizations, and the Secretary-General of the United Nations to publicize as widely as possible the text of the Declaration adopted.

Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide

The General Assembly on December 11, 1946, unanimously affirmed that genocide—the killing of a group of human beings—is a crime under international law which the civilized world condemns.

A Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide was unanimously adopted by the General Assembly on December 9, 1948. The Convention defines genocide as the commitment of certain acts with intent to destroy, in whole or in part, a national, ethnic, racial, or religious group as such. The acts constituting genocide are killing, causing serious bodily or mental harm, deliberately inflicting conditions of life calculated to bring about physical destruction in whole or in part, imposing measures intended to prevent birth, and the forcible transfer of children. Not only genocide itself but also conspiracy or incitement to commit it, as well as attempts to commit genocide and complicity in the crime, are punishable under the Convention. All who are guilty of genocide must be punished "whether they are constitutionally responsible rulers, public officers or private individuals."

States adhering to the Convention are required to pass the necessary laws to give effect to it and to grant extradition in cases of genocide. Those guilty of genocide are to be tried in the country where the crime was committed or by such international tribunals as may have jurisdiction. The purpose of the Convention is to prevent and punish genocide, whether committed in time of war or in time of peace. It came into force on January 12, 1951.

Refugees and Stateless Persons

The United Nations has been studying statelessness and questions relating to it since 1947. It has adopted conventions which give cer-

tain legal rights to refugees and to stateless persons and it has appointed a High Commissioner for Refugees to assist various categories of refugees with their problems (*see page 332*).

In July 1951 a Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees was adopted by a conference of plenipotentiaries convened in Geneva by the General Assembly. It entered into force on April 22, 1954. The parties to the Convention undertake to apply three standards of treatment to refugees: (1) the same treatment that nationals receive with regard to religion, artistic rights, industrial property, access to courts, rationing, elementary education, public relief, labor legislation and social security, and fiscal charges; (2) the most favorable treatment accorded nationals of a foreign country with regard to the right of association and wage-earning employment; and (3) the most favorable treatment possible and, in any event, not less favorable than that accorded aliens generally, with regard to movable and immovable property, self-employment, liberal professions, housing, education other than elementary education, and freedom of movement. Provision is also made in the Convention for issuing passports to refugees and protecting them from expulsion from the country of refuge.

In September 1954 a Convention Relating to the Status of Stateless Persons was adopted by a conference of plenipotentiaries convened in New York by the Economic and Social Council. It came into force on June 6, 1960.

This Convention is based on the Refugees Convention, and many articles contain identical language. States parties undertake to grant to stateless persons almost the same standards of treatment as to refugees, except that in the case of the right of association and wage-earning employment, the treatment will be that accorded aliens generally. A stateless person is defined in the Convention as "a person who is not considered as a national by any state under the operation of its law." Included in the final act of the conference was a recommendation to governments concerning a person who has renounced the protection of the state of which he is a national, by which they consider sympathetically, in certain cases, the possibility of according to that person the treatment which the Convention affords to stateless persons. Contracting states to the Convention also agree to facilitate the assimilation and naturalization of stateless persons.

Draft Declaration on the Right of Asylum

The General Assembly has before it a draft declaration on the right of asylum. First presented to the Commission on Human Rights in 1957, the text of such a declaration was subsequently revised by the Commission in the light of comments made by governments, non-governmental organizations, and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees and forwarded, through the Economic and Social

Council, to the Assembly. The declaration has been described as an attempt to set forth rules and standards of conduct in the matter of asylum. Difficulties have arisen because of conflicting views on the emphasis to be placed on respect for national sovereignty and the need to provide adequate protection for the individual seeking asylum.

As submitted to the Assembly, the draft declaration lays down five principles on which states members of the United Nations and of the specialized agencies should base their actions. It declares that asylum granted by a state shall be respected by all other states; that the situation of persons forced to leave a country because of persecution, or well-founded fear of persecution, is a matter of concern to the international community; and that no one seeking or enjoying asylum should, "except for overriding reasons of national security or safeguard of the population," be subjected to measures which would compel him to return or remain in a country where his life might be threatened.

Protection of Trade Union Rights (Freedom of Association)

The Economic and Social Council has been concerned with trade union rights since 1947, when the matter was brought to its attention by certain non-governmental organizations. Since then it has worked in close cooperation with the International Labour Organisation (ILO) for the promotion of these rights. As a result, the International Labor Conference adopted in 1948 the Freedom of Association Convention and the Right to Organize, and in 1949 the Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining Convention. ILO has also established on its own behalf, and on that of the United Nations, international machinery for the examination of allegations of infringements of trade union rights.

Under the original arrangements, all allegations of infringements of trade union rights received by the United Nations were brought to the attention of the Economic and Social Council. The Council in April 1953, however, instructed the Secretariat to forward all allegations against member states of ILO direct to the Governing Body of ILO. Since then the Council has been seized of only a few isolated cases involving non-member states of ILO.

Forced Labor

The United Nations and ILO jointly established a Committee on Forced Labor in 1951. In an inquiry it made on this subject, the Committee received from governments, non-governmental organizations, and individuals, allegations that forced labor existed in certain countries or territories. The study covered some twenty-four countries or territories.

The Committee held four sessions and completed its work in 1953. Its final report concluded that there were two systems of forced labor in the world: the first was employed as a means of coercion or punishment for holding or expressing political views; the second, for important economic purposes. The Committee considered that its inquiry had revealed that fundamental human rights were threatened and the freedom and status of workers were jeopardized, both in contravention of the obligations and provisions of the United Nations Charter. It urged that such systems of forced labor be abolished.

In 1954 both the Economic and Social Council and the General Assembly condemned those systems of forced labor, appealed to all governments to re-examine their laws and administrative practices, and asked the Secretary-General and the Director-General of ILO to prepare a further report, including any new information on forced labor. The report was completed in December 1955.

The Council, early in 1956, again condemned all forms of forced labor which are contrary to the principles of the United Nations Charter and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and, in particular, forced labor employed as a means of coercion or punishment for holding or expressing political views; this latter, it was felt, is on such a scale as to constitute an important element in the economy of a given country. The Council urged that action be taken to eliminate forced labor.

In June 1957, the International Labor Conference adopted a Convention on the Abolition of Forced Labor. Under this Convention states parties undertake to suppress and not to make use of any form of forced or compulsory labor "(a) as a means of political coercion or education or as a punishment for holding or expressing political views or views ideologically opposed to the established political, social, or economic system; (b) as a method of mobilizing and using labor for purposes of economic development; (c) as a means of labor discipline; (d) as a punishment for having participated in strikes; (e) as a means of racial, social, national, or religious discrimination." States parties should take further effective measures to secure the immediate and complete abolition of forced or compulsory labor as defined above.

Slavery and Servitude

The Economic and Social Council has been studying the problem of slavery since 1949, when it asked the Secretary-General to appoint a committee of experts "to survey the field of slavery and other institutions and customs resembling slavery, to assess the nature and extent of these several problems and to suggest methods of attacking these problems."

The four-member committee completed its study in 1951. It reported that, apart from slavery in its crudest form, a number of in-

stitutions or practices analogous to slavery or resembling slavery in some of its effects still existed in various parts of the world. The League of Nations Slavery Convention of 1926 did not cover many of these institutions or practices. The committee proposed that a supplementary convention be drafted by the United Nations.

In 1953 the General Assembly adopted a protocol under which the functions exercised by the League of Nations under the Slavery Convention of 1926 were transferred to the United Nations.

In September 1956 a Supplementary Convention on Slavery, the Slave Trade, and Institutions and Practices Similar to Slavery was adopted and opened for signature at a conference of plenipotentiaries convened by the Economic and Social Council at Geneva. The Convention has been in force since April 30, 1957.

Plight of Survivors of Nazi Concentration Camps

The Commission on the Status of Women in May 1950 called attention to the plight of women survivors of concentration camps who were subjected, during the Nazi regime, to so-called medical experiments.

In July of the same year, the Economic and Social Council requested the Secretary-General to consider as soon as possible, with the competent authorities, means for alleviating the plight of such victims, both male and female.

Following consultations with the United Nations, the Government of the Federal Republic of Germany accepted responsibility for compensating survivors of experimentation by Nazi doctors in concentration camps. More than 500 claims have been transmitted to that Government by the United Nations. Successful claimants have received indemnification for sulfonamide experiments and for sterilization.

Missing Persons

One of the saddest problems caused by the Second World War was the disappearance, without any evidence of death, of millions of human beings. The disappearances resulting mostly from deportations, incarceration in concentration camps, and other methods of extermination practiced by the Nazis and some of their allies, gave rise, in many instances, to legal difficulties. The General Assembly in December 1949 decided to call an international conference of governments to conclude a multilateral convention on the matter.

The conference met at Lake Success, New York, in March and April 1950, and established and opened for accession a Convention on the Declaration of Death of Missing Persons. The Convention, which came into force on January 24, 1952, provided for the estab-

lishment, within the framework of the United Nations, of an International Bureau for the Declaration of Death. The Bureau opened in Geneva on October 1, 1952, as a separate unit within the European Office of the United Nations.

Prisoners of War

In 1950 the General Assembly asked the Secretary-General to appoint three "qualified and impartial persons" to settle the problem of prisoners of the Second World War who had not been repatriated or otherwise accounted for.

The three-member *ad hoc* Commission on Prisoners of War collected facts and figures, on numerous occasions urged the governments concerned to end the problem, and, in 1957, submitted to the Secretary-General a full report on progress made in the repatriation of, and the accounting for, prisoners of war since 1950. Governments concerned were again urged to settle the problem in a purely humanitarian spirit, specifically, either directly or through the good offices of the Red Cross Societies.

Communications Concerning Human Rights

The United Nations receives each year several thousand communications concerning human rights from individuals and groups in all parts of the world but since the Organization is intergovernmental, it does not as a rule deal with complaints of private individuals or groups. The Secretariat forwards copies of these communications to the governments concerned without, however, disclosing the identities of the authors except with their consent. Whether a government takes action on a communication thus forwarded is entirely at its own discretion. The Secretariat also prepares confidential lists of the communications for the information of the Commission on Human Rights and the Commission on the Status of Women.

Status of Women

The United Nations organ primarily concerned with the promotion of women's rights is the Commission on the Status of Women, established in 1946 to prepare and make recommendations in political, civil, social, economic, and educational fields.

The Commission has dealt with a variety of questions relating to women's rights. Among those occupying its continued attention are political rights, economic rights and opportunities, access to education, and the status of women. The Commission has also regularly considered the United Nations technical assistance programs and ad-

visory services in relation to the status of women and has reviewed the status of women in trust and non-self-governing territories.

Political Rights

At its first session in 1946 the General Assembly recommended that all member states grant women political rights equal to those of men. Each year the Assembly and the Commission on the Status of Women consider the progress of women's political rights under national laws, as reported annually by the Secretary-General.

The Convention on the Political Rights of Women was adopted on December 20, 1952, at the seventh session of the Assembly. Parties to the Convention agree to accord to women the right to vote, to be elected and hold public office, and to perform public functions on equal terms with men.

The Commission gives special attention to discrimination against women in public services and functions. On its initiative, the Economic and Social Council adopted a resolution in 1960 recommending that states eliminate all discriminatory measures concerning women, particularly married women, employed in the public services.

Political and civic education of women has also occupied the attention of the Commission, and in this field the role of non-governmental organizations has been stressed in particular.

Economic Rights

The question of equal pay for equal work has figured importantly in the work of the Commission on the Status of Women. Collaboration between ILO and the United Nations resulted in an ILO Convention and a Recommendation on Equal Remuneration for Work of Equal Value for Men and Women Workers, which were adopted in 1951. The Commission and the Economic and Social Council have repeatedly urged the acceptance by governments of the principle of equal pay and encouraged non-governmental organizations to inform public opinion on the subject.

The Council has also concerned itself with vocational and technical training opportunities, vocational guidance, age of retirement, and conditions of employment for women and has urged governments to avail themselves of services provided by technical assistance programs in these fields.

Another question considered by the Council has been the access to women of training and employment in the principal professional and technical fields. A report by the Secretary-General on the availability of opportunities for women as jurists, architects, and engineers was considered by the Commission in 1959 and another report on

selected occupations in the principal professional and technical fields was discussed by the Commission at its fifteenth session, in 1961.

In a resolution adopted in 1961, the Council called upon member states to pay special attention to the problems of employment of women, take all possible steps to promote for women, who desire to work, opportunities to obtain employment in accordance with their qualifications and abilities, and take the necessary measures to eliminate restrictions on the right to work of women, including married women and women about to contract marriage. Special aspects of the employment of women—including handicrafts and cottage industries, part-time work, work for older women, and the situation of working women with family responsibilities—have been considered by the Commission and the Council on the basis of reports prepared by ILO and by the Secretary-General.

Educational Opportunities

The provision of equal educational opportunities for men and women at all levels has been repeatedly urged by the Economic and Social Council. It recommended that no distinction be made on the basis of sex with respect to access to education, basic curricula and choice of subjects, the distribution of scholarships for education in all fields, and the preparation for all careers. The Council also paid special attention to the importance of campaigns against illiteracy and of equal participation of women in programs of adult education.

UNESCO has presented to the Commission on the Status of Women reports on educational opportunities for girls and women, including access to primary, secondary, higher, and out-of-school education and access to the teaching profession. In connection with the latter, the Economic and Social Council has urged educational authorities in member states to ensure, in law and in fact, a complete professional training for women teachers, equal access to posts of responsibility and authority, and the elimination of discrimination against married women in the exercise of the teaching profession.

Private Law

The status of women under laws dealing with the family and with property rights of women has been extensively studied by the Commission on the Status of Women. The Commission recommended that governments ensure the equality of rights and duties of spouses in conformity with the principle enunciated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. This recommendation has been adopted by the Council, as have specific recommendations made by the Commission for equality of parental rights and duties; for the rights of a married

woman to have a domicile independent of that of her husband; for the rights of a married woman to engage in work without her husband's authorization; and for statutory matrimonial regimes affording women equal rights with respect to separate or common property during marriage and equitable sharing of property at dissolution. The Commission has also undertaken the study of inheritance laws as they affect women.

Certain ancient laws and customs relating to marriage and the family have been viewed by the Commission as impediments to the attainment of women's basic rights as contemplated in the United Nations Charter and in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Thus, the General Assembly in 1954 urged all states, including those administering trust and non-self-governing territories to take measures to abolish such customs, ancient laws, and practices as child marriage and bride-price; to guarantee widows custody of their children and freedom to remarry; to ensure the right freely to choose a spouse; and to establish civil registers for marriages and divorces.

The Commission studied the question of marriage, especially from the point of view of the requirement of free consent of both parties, the minimum age of marriage, and the registration of marriages. It prepared texts of a draft convention and a draft recommendation on these subjects. On November 7, 1962, the General Assembly adopted the Convention on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage and Registration of Marriages, but returned the draft recommendation to the Commission for further consideration.

Nationality of Married Women

The Commission on the Status of Women has taken a stand against laws providing for the automatic loss or acquisition of nationality by a woman because of marriage to a man of a different nationality. In 1955 the General Assembly approved, with some changes, the substantive articles of the Convention on the Nationality of Married Women, which had been drafted by the Commission. Under this Convention, contracting states agree that neither the celebration nor the dissolution of a marriage between one of its nationals and an alien shall have any automatic effect on the wife's nationality; provision is also made for facilitating the voluntary acquisition by an alien woman of her husband's nationality.

The General Assembly in 1956 approved the final clauses of this Convention, which came into force on August 11, 1958.

Technical Assistance and Advisory Services

The General Assembly in 1955 established advisory services in the field of human rights, consolidating previous programs including that

related to the status of women. Five seminars on the status of women have been organized under these advisory services: in Bangkok, 1957; in Bogota, 1959; in Addis Ababa, 1960; in Bucharest, 1961; and in Tokyo, 1962.

Assistance for the Advancement of Women in Developing Countries

The Economic and Social Council, in 1960, invited the Secretary-General to undertake a study of the need for and possibilities of further United Nations assistance to be directed especially toward the efforts in developing countries to advance the status of women. The General Assembly, in 1960 and 1962, emphasized the necessity of increased assistance in this field.

Status of Women in Trust and Non-Self-Governing Territories

The Commission on the Status of Women receives annual reports on the status of women in trust and in non-self-governing territories. Recommendations by the Commission and the Council, however, rarely apply only to dependent areas since for the most part the problems relating to the status of women exist also in some sovereign states.

International Control of Narcotic Drugs

The basic aim of international as well as national narcotics control is the prevention of the misuse of narcotic drugs, and of the resulting damage to public health in particular and to society in general.

The first international conference on narcotics met in Shanghai in 1909. Since then an effective international control system has been built up step by step, from 1920 under the auspices of the League of Nations and since 1946 under the United Nations.

The United Nations exercises functions and powers relating to the international control of narcotic drugs in accordance with a series of multilateral treaties at present in force. About 100 states participate in this control system. This international regime requires that governments exercise control over the production and distribution of narcotic drugs, take measures to combat illicit traffic, maintain the necessary administrative machinery, and report to international organs on their actions. The international organs may make recommendations to governments and, if need be, criticize their actions.

There are at present four international organs exclusively concerned with problems of narcotic drugs: the Commission on Narcotic Drugs, the Permanent Central Opium Board (PCOB), the Drug Supervisory Body (DSB), and the Expert Committee on Addiction-Producing Drugs (of the World Health Organization).

The Commission on Narcotic Drugs is one of the functional commissions of the Economic and Social Council and the successor to the League of Nations Advisory Committee on the Traffic in Opium and Other Dangerous Drugs. Between 1946 and 1961, the Commission was composed of fifteen governments chosen by the Council because they were the principal manufacturers of narcotic drugs or producers of opium or coca leaf, or because they were primary targets of the international illicit traffic. In 1961 the Council increased the membership of the Commission to twenty-one, electing the following new members to participate in the 1962 session: Brazil, Japan, Madagascar, Morocco, Poland, and Switzerland. The existing fifteen members were: Canada, China, France, Hungary, India, Iran, Mexico, Netherlands, Peru, Turkey, USSR, United Arab Republic, United Kingdom, United States, and Yugoslavia. The Commission reviews annually the status of narcotics control in all countries, considers what improvements are necessary, and prepares new measures for this purpose.

The Permanent Central Opium Board and the Drug Supervisory Body, which meet twice a year, are closely interrelated technical organs, the members of which serve as experts and not as representatives of their governments. The eight members of the Board, appointed by the Economic and Social Council, review statistical returns of governments on the various phases of the licit trade in narcotics in the light of the advance estimates of drug requirements that governments furnish. The Board is empowered to take certain semi-judicial measures if it determines treaty violations in this connection.

The Drug Supervisory Body is composed of four experts: two appointed by the World Health Organization, one by the Commission, and one by the Permanent Central Opium Board. The Supervisory Body reviews annually the estimates of drug requirements that governments furnish and can ask governments for explanations and amend the estimates with the consent of the government concerned. Governments must not manufacture or import drugs under control above the maximum amounts computed on the basis of the estimates.

The WHO Expert Committee on Addiction-Producing Drugs is mainly concerned with the medical aspects of drug addiction. Composed of technical experts, it evaluates the dangerous properties of new drugs to determine whether they should be placed under international control.

Treaty Developments under the United Nations

Four multilateral treaties on narcotics control have been prepared and adopted since 1946.

A protocol was signed at Lake Success, New York, on December

11, 1946, by which functions of the organs of the League of Nations were legally transferred to corresponding ones of the United Nations. Another protocol, adopted in Paris on November 19, 1948, extended the control regime to drugs not fully covered by previous treaties, especially to the newly developed synthetic narcotics. A third protocol was adopted by the United Nations Opium Conference, which took place in New York in May and June 1953. This Protocol for Limiting and Regulating the Cultivation of the Poppy Plant, the Production of, International and Wholesale Trade in, and Use of Opium had not entered into force by the end of 1962, but did in February 1963.

The multilateral treaties in the field of narcotics, concluded between 1912 and 1953, do not fully meet the social and political conditions of the present, nor is the established international control machinery adequate. In view of this situation, the Economic and Social Council requested the United Nations Secretariat in 1948 to begin work on the draft of a new single convention. In the following year, the Council approved both the principles suggested by the Narcotics Commission for the new convention and the preparation of a draft treaty by the Secretariat. The work on the single convention occupied the Commission during the ensuing nine years and involved the formulation of three drafts.

On January 24, 1961, at United Nations Headquarters, a plenipotentiary conference was convened which brought together technical experts and administrators from seventy-four countries. It adopted the Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs, 1961, which fulfilled the three main goals of the Council: (1) simplification of the international control machinery (by fusing the Opium Board and the Supervisory Body into one body); (2) replacement of the international control instruments by one treaty; and (3) expansion of the control system to the cultivation of the plants (opium, cannabis, and coca leaves) which are grown for the raw materials of the natural drugs. In addition, the Convention stipulates that, after a definite transition period, all non-medical uses of narcotic drugs, such as opium smoking and eating, consumption of cannabis, and the chewing of coca leaves, will be outlawed everywhere. This has been the goal of international narcotic control efforts for half a century.

During the time it was open for signature—between March 30 and August 1, 1961—the Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs, 1961, was signed by sixty-four countries. The Convention will come into force thirty days after the deposit of the fortieth instrument of ratification or accession. By the end of 1962, thirteen countries had ratified or acceded to the instrument. The General Assembly, in 1962, invited governments to take such steps as might be necessary for the ratification of or accession to the Convention.

Implementation of Treaties

In its annual review of the functioning of the control system, the Commission on Narcotic Drugs has the benefit of information furnished to the Secretary-General, the Permanent Central Opium Board, and the Drug Supervisory Body by parties to the international treaties on narcotic drugs. These data include:

(a) estimates of narcotics needed for medical and scientific purposes (*Estimated World Requirements of Narcotic Drugs*);

(b) statistics on production and manufacture of, international trade in, stocks and consumption of, narcotics (*Report to the Economic and Social Council on the Work of the Permanent Central Opium Board*);

(c) annual reports prepared in accordance with a form drafted by the Narcotics Commission and forwarded to the Secretary-General: the data on illicit traffic are published in full and the other data appear in an annual summary prepared by the Secretariat (*Summary of Annual Reports of Governments Relating to Opium and Other Narcotic Drugs*);

(d) reports on important cases of illicit traffic having international significance (*Summary of Illicit Transactions and Seizures*);

(e) texts of laws and regulations relating to the control of narcotic drugs;

(f) lists of names and addresses of firms authorized to manufacture narcotic drugs; and

(g) information on national authorities empowered to issue certificates and authorizations for the import and export of narcotic drugs.

International Campaign against Illicit Traffic

Data on seizures supplied by governments as well as additional information provided by the International Criminal Police Organization are reviewed annually by the Commission. A preliminary and more detailed examination of the material available on the subject is made by the Commission's Committee on Illicit Traffic.

The chief drugs in the internal and international illicit traffic are opium and the opiates (morphine and diacetylmorphine, also known as heroin), cocaine, and cannabis. The traffic is almost entirely supplied from clandestine sources, and it is generally admitted that the flow of the traffic continues at a high level.

In September and October 1959, the Middle East Narcotics Survey Mission, established by the Economic and Social Council, spent some six weeks in the area holding consultations and discussions with officials and making on-the-spot investigations. The mission sent confidential communications and recommendations direct to governments. The mission's report contained specific recommendations for improve-

ment of control. A "follow-up" mission to the Middle East took place in early 1962.

Problem of the Coca Leaf

In 1949, at the request of the Governments of Bolivia and Peru, a special United Nations commission of inquiry visited those countries to study the effects of chewing the coca leaf and to investigate the possibility of limiting its production. The commission found that chewing the leaves was harmful and proposed that it be gradually suppressed. This approach having been accepted by the governments most directly concerned, the Economic and Social Council recommended in 1954 that the technical assistance services give due consideration to any requests from these countries for assistance in developing appropriate administrative and social measures for the gradual suppression of the habit, and urged the governments concerned to limit the cultivation and export of the coca leaf to legitimate purposes and to abolish progressively the coca-chewing habit.

In March 1960 the first Inter-American Meeting on the Illicit Traffic in Cocaine and Coca Leaves was held in Rio de Janeiro at the invitation of the Brazilian Government and following a suggestion of the Commission. This was followed in November and December 1961 by the Inter-American Consultative Group on Narcotics Control, which also met at Rio de Janeiro.

Problem of Cannabis

Cannabis, known under a variety of names and forms, such as marijuana, hashish, indian hemp, bhang, ganja, and maconha, is geographically the most widespread drug of addiction. Its control poses especially difficult problems, for the cannabis plant grows wild in nearly every part of the world and is also widely cultivated for industrial purposes, that is, for the utilization of its fibre and seeds. Moreover, while practically obsolete in Western medicine, cannabis is still used extensively in certain indigenous systems of medicine, and its non-medical use is a deep-rooted custom for many.

The Secretariat has prepared a number of surveys on the situation of cannabis in representative areas of the world.

Research

The Secretariat, through its laboratory located in Geneva, participates in a research program of determining the geographical origin of opium by physical and chemical characteristics. It also acts as a clearing-house for research activities in this field conducted by scientists and national laboratories in various countries.

The Secretariat prepares annually a survey of available information on synthetic and other narcotics recently placed under control and various studies on the main aspects of elimination or reduction of drug addiction have been prepared by the United Nations Secretariat and the World Health Organization.

Technical Assistance

Technical assistance in the field of narcotic drugs includes: training fellowships for nationals of the countries concerned; expert advisers; and regional projects such as seminars, consultative groups, or visiting missions. The subjects covered may be concerned with any aspect of narcotics control and related subjects: enforcement services (police, customs, excise); administrative services; treatment and rehabilitation of drug addicts; development of agriculture to replace former crops of narcotic-bearing plants.

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)

Of the billion or more children now growing up in the world, three out of four live in economically less developed countries. A great number of these children suffer from hunger and disease; many lack the chance to learn to read and write and acquire elementary skills. Such children are lost to their proper development as individuals and to the economic and social progress of their country.

The purpose of UNICEF is to encourage and support developing countries in their efforts to help their children become healthy and useful citizens. In the current United Nations Development Decade, when United Nations agencies are taking part in a world-wide effort to raise the standard of living in developing countries, UNICEF's role is a particularly vital one for the total development of a country is bound up with its young people. On their health, enterprise, values, and skills, depends the future of their country.

UNICEF was created by the General Assembly on December 11, 1946. It is governed by a 30-nation Executive Board, which meets regularly to set policy and allocate aid to projects. The work is reviewed annually by the Economic and Social Council and the Assembly. UNICEF personnel are members of the Secretariat of the United Nations, and its Executive Director is appointed by the Secretary-General, in consultation with the Executive Board.

Though a part of the United Nations, UNICEF is not financed through the regular United Nations budget, but by voluntary contributions. The number of governments contributing to UNICEF has steadily increased from thirty in 1950 to over 100 in 1962. Contributions made by individuals and organizations or collected through

campaigns like the Hallowe'en Trick or Treat for UNICEF are increasingly important sources of revenue. Total income now amounts to something over \$30 million annually.

Seventeen UNICEF national committees play a leading role in generating public interest in the needs of children, through special fund-raising projects and through the sale of UNICEF greeting cards. In addition, men and women of some seventy international voluntary organizations work closely with the organization.

A request for UNICEF aid, whether it is for help in planning children's projects, for essential supplies from outside the country, or for a grant for training national personnel, must come from the government of a country. The government must agree to continue the project as part of its permanent services if the need persists. UNICEF is currently aiding over 500 projects in 115 countries.

UNICEF aid is frequently given to individual programs, but because of the interrelationship of children's needs, governments are encouraged to develop comprehensive national plans for children. In the developing countries generally, the most pressing needs of children are in the following fields and these are the main types of programs assisted by UNICEF.

Health

Millions of children are victims of intestinal infections, malaria, yaws, trachoma, tuberculosis, leprosy, or other diseases now controlled in economically advanced countries. Only one out of four births in the developing countries is attended by a competent midwife or better. UNICEF provides drugs, insecticides, antibiotics, vaccines, and miscellaneous field equipment and vehicles for mass disease control campaigns. It also helps countries set up widespread permanent health services through which mothers and children can get expert advice and help. Equipment has been provided for over 8,000 main health centers and 19,000 village centers.

Nutrition

Malnutrition and undernutrition afflict many millions of children in developing countries. Children with insufficient quantities of protein and certain vitamins in their diet suffer from general weakness, retarded development, and in many cases serious illness. Habit, superstition, and taboos sometimes prevent the use of potential food resources.

UNICEF's assistance to nutrition includes aid for increasing family food production, child feeding, hygienic treatment of milk, development of "new" high protein foods, and the education of families in better nutrition practices.

Education and Vocational Training

There is a serious lack of teachers, schools, and educational materials. In some areas, for instance, more than half the children who should be in primary school have no school to attend. Facilities for secondary and technical education are also scarce. UNICEF assists projects for training school teachers, for local production of teaching materials, and for providing young people leaving school with vocational training.

Family and Child Welfare

The movement to towns for factory work and the ensuing breakdown of the traditional way of life bring many acute problems—disruption of the home through absence in the city of the breadwinner, care of children of working mothers, for instance. An increasing amount of UNICEF aid is now going to family and child welfare services, including aid to mothers' clubs, day-care centers, and residential institutions for children.

Emergency Aid

When other aid is unavailable or insufficient, UNICEF may provide emergency aid for children who are victims of earthquakes, floods, droughts, and other disasters.

In the above-mentioned fields, developing countries are operating programs that benefit millions of children and mothers. Often external aid is given by an industrially advanced country, through UNICEF and other United Nations agencies, or by a non-governmental organization. The developing countries themselves are enlarging their plans for children and using more of their own resources. But more aid is needed. UNICEF can give more assistance only with the increasing support of governments and individuals who believe in the principle expressed in the Declaration of the Rights of the Child: "Mankind owes to the child the best it has to give."

Office of the United Nations

High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)

The first major international agency which worked on behalf of refugees after the beginning of the Second World War was the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (UNRRA). Established on November 9, 1943, and officially ceasing its activities on March 31, 1949, UNRRA dealt with several million refugees, repatriating them, feeding them, and later initiating programs of resettlement.

In the wake of UNRRA came the International Refugee Organization (IRO). The United Nations General Assembly approved IRO's Constitution on December 15, 1946. A Preparatory Commission for IRO was established and on July 1, 1947, took over the functions and activities previously exercised by UNRRA on behalf of refugees and displaced persons. IRO succeeded the Preparatory Commission on August 20, 1948. Prior to its liquidation on December 31, 1951, IRO resettled more than a million displaced persons and refugees in new homes throughout the world, repatriated approximately 73,000 to their former homelands and, altogether, gave some form of assistance to more than 1.6 million persons.

On December 3, 1949, the General Assembly of the United Nations, recognizing the responsibility of the United Nations for the international protection of refugees after the termination of IRO, decided to appoint a High Commissioner for Refugees.

Establishment of the

Office of the High Commissioner for Refugees

On December 14, 1950, the General Assembly adopted the Statute for the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and the Office came into existence on January 1, 1951, originally for a period of three years. Since then, the UNHCR mandate has been extended by the General Assembly three times for five-year periods: until December 31, 1958, until December 31, 1963, and, most recently, until December 31, 1968.

HIGH COMMISSIONER

The High Commissioner is elected by the General Assembly on the nomination of the Secretary-General of the United Nations. He is responsible to the Assembly. The present High Commissioner is Felix Schnyder, of Switzerland, who was elected to the post on December 5, 1960. He succeeded Auguste R. Lindt, also of Switzerland, who had been elected on December 10, 1956. The first High Commissioner was the late Dr. G. J. van Heuven Goedhart of the Netherlands.

OFFICES

The UNHCR headquarters are in Geneva, Switzerland. Branch offices are established in Australia (also for New Zealand), Austria, Belgium and Luxembourg, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Italy, Colombia (for Latin America), Lebanon (for the Middle East), Morocco, the Netherlands, Tunisia, Turkey, the United Arab Republic, the United Kingdom, and the United States of America. In addi-

tion, there are UNHCR correspondents in Argentina, Canada, Chile, Ecuador, Portugal, the Republic of South Africa, Spain, Venezuela, and Yugoslavia, and Chargés de Mission in East and Central Africa.

A joint representative of UNHCR and the Intergovernmental Committee for European Migration (ICEM) in Hong Kong deals, more specifically, with the problem of refugees of European origin still on the mainland of China who seek resettlement opportunities in other countries.

TERMS OF REFERENCE

The work of UNHCR is humanitarian, social, and entirely non-political. The basic tasks of the Office are to provide international protection for the refugees within the High Commissioner's mandate, and to seek permanent solutions to their problems by facilitating their voluntary repatriation or assimilation within new national communities.

Mandate refugees, as defined in the UNHCR Statute, are persons who, owing to well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, or political opinion, are outside their country of origin and cannot or, owing to such fear, do not wish to avail themselves of the protection of that country. Moreover, and particularly when meeting refugee situations outside Europe, the High Commissioner acts under the directives of the General Assembly to put his "good offices" at the disposal of governments. The High Commissioner is always guided in such actions by the requirements of the best interests of the refugees themselves. It is not possible for him to act in every situation where the word "refugee" is mentioned, but only in cases where concerted international cooperation, through the instrument of UNHCR, is requested, justified, and possible.

The High Commissioner must cope with a very wide and varying range of problems and he must adapt his activities, in close contact with the governments concerned, to the prevailing circumstances. His role is that of initiator and catalyst, bringing together and using all available energies and resources of governments, of voluntary agencies, and of other organizations, and keeping in touch with the technical assistance services and specialized agencies of the United Nations, to ensure that, whenever possible, efforts on behalf of refugees are fitted to the general development program of the country concerned.

The High Commissioner's competence does not, however, extend to refugees receiving protection or assistance from other organs or agencies of the United Nations, such as about one million Arab refugees from Palestine, who are the concern of the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA); nor does his competence extend to refugees who are recognized by the governments concerned as having the rights and obligations

are attached to the possession of the nationality of the country of asylum, such as is the case with the refugees in India and Pakistan, or the German expellees and refugees in the Federal Republic of Germany.

REFUGEES WITH WHOM UNHCR IS CONCERNED

The High Commissioner's basic function is to provide international protection for refugees who have neither acquired the nationality of the country granting them asylum, nor availed themselves of the protection of their country of origin through voluntary repatriation to that country. Under this definition, there were at the end of 1962 approximately 1.3 million refugees under the High Commissioner's mandate. Of these, 800,000 were in Europe, 3,500 in the Middle East, 2,500 in the Far East, and about 500,000 elsewhere in the world. The great majority of these, however, could be regarded as firmly re-established. Most of them are of European origin.

The High Commissioner's activities are not, however, confined to Europe or to refugees of European origin but, in an ever-increasing scale, benefit refugees in other areas, particularly in Africa.

One of the largest "new" refugee problems with which the High Commissioner has had to deal was in North Africa, where he took action to alleviate the situation of Algerian refugees in Morocco and Tunisia. Operating jointly with the League of Red Cross Societies, the High Commissioner provided food, clothing, and shelter to over 200,000 refugees in the two countries. His main responsibility was to raise the necessary cash contributions, amounting to about \$2 million a year. The League concentrated primarily on contributions in kind, amounting to some \$5 million a year, and provided qualified personnel to man the operation.

In 1961 the General Assembly requested the High Commissioner to cooperate also in the repatriation of the Algerian refugees and to provide aid during repatriation. The High Commissioner was also asked by the parties to the Evian cease-fire agreement of March 18, 1962 to participate in a tripartite repatriation commission which was to effect the orderly return of these refugees. He agreed to do so, on a humanitarian and technical basis, in cooperation with the League of Red Cross Societies.

The joint UNHCR/League action came to a successful conclusion in July 1962. Subsequently, the League and a number of voluntary agencies, with the support of UNHCR, carried out a relief action in Algeria itself.

In 1957 and, again in 1962, the High Commissioner was asked by the General Assembly to use his "good offices" on behalf of Chinese refugees in Hong Kong. He was able to arouse considerable interest in these refugees and to channel financial contributions for

their assistance. He has also lent his "good offices" to assist Chinese refugees in Macao.

In addition, the High Commissioner has been asked to bring assistance to refugees in Cambodia, from Tibet, from Angola in the Congo (Leopoldville), in Togo, refugees from Ruanda in the Kivu province of the Congo (Leopoldville), in Burundi, in Tanganyika and in Uganda, and Cuban refugees in Spain.

FINANCING OF UNHCR ACTIVITIES

The UNHCR is an integral part of the United Nations, and its administrative expenditure is financed under the United Nations budget. UNHCR programs are financed through voluntary contributions from governments and private sources. Governmental contributions are arranged at yearly pledging conferences held at United Nations Headquarters, and through direct appeals by UNHCR. Fund-raising campaigns in certain countries also support the High Commissioner's programs.

A special venture, whose objectives were to raise funds for refugees as well as to attract world-wide interest in their plight, was the World Refugee Year (1959-60) which largely benefited refugees under the High Commissioner's mandate, both through the financing of UNHCR programs and through measures to apply more liberal resettlement criteria, particularly in respect of handicapped refugees.

Another effort, originated by the High Commissioner at the end of 1962, and intended also to benefit refugees under the care of UNRWA, was the promotion of the world-wide sale of "All Star Festival," a long-playing record.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The High Commissioner's program is administered by an Executive Committee consisting, in December 1962, of twenty-five members. This Committee makes policy recommendations and advises the High Commissioner, both on the exercise of his functions under the Statute and on the appropriate provision of international assistance through his Office. The Committee meets at Geneva twice a year; it consists of representatives from states members of the United Nations or any of the specialized agencies, elected by the Economic and Social Council on the widest geographical basis from among those states with a demonstrated interest in and devotion to the solution of the refugee problem.

International Protection

International protection is basic to the High Commissioner's work in favor of refugees. It is designed to overcome the disabilities from

which refugees suffer because they lack national protection, and to safeguard their rights and legitimate interests. A refugee remains under the High Commissioner's mandate until finally integrated in his country of residence—by acquiring the nationality of that country—or until he has returned voluntarily to his country of origin.

Legal protection is effected by promoting the conclusion and ratification of international conventions for the protection of refugees, by supervising their application and by promoting, by agreement with governments, measures calculated to improve the situation of refugees.

The most important international instrument drawn up for the benefit of refugees is the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees. Up to the end of 1962, the Convention had been ratified or acceded to by thirty-six states.

The Convention sets out and codifies the minimum rights of refugees. These include freedom of religion, access to courts and the right to work, to education, and to social security. The Convention ensures that contracting states shall not expel a refugee lawfully on their territory save on grounds of national security or public order, and that no such refugee shall be expelled or returned in any manner whatsoever to the frontiers of territories where his life or freedom would be threatened on account of his race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion.

The Convention also provides for the issuance of travel documents to refugees and makes special reference to the problem of refugee seamen, who, serving as crew members on board merchant ships and owing to lack of documents permitting them to return to any country, have been unable to set foot on shore legally. An agreement concluded by eight maritime nations at The Hague in November 1957 provides for measures which have enabled thousands of these seamen to regularize their position. It is now being applied by eleven states.

Facilitation of refugee travel is another matter of considerable concern to the High Commissioner's Office, and negotiations on this point are constantly in progress. For example, the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe adopted, on April 20, 1959 and in cooperation with UNHCR, a European agreement on the abolition of visas for refugees. The agreement had been ratified by eight states at the end of 1962. In addition, the Council of Europe has adopted a resolution on the facilitation of refugee travel. These measures allow refugees to be exempted from visa requirements for temporary travel and, pending such exemption, enable refugees to obtain visas rapidly and free of charge.

On October 5, 1960, the Federal Republic of Germany and the High Commissioner concluded a special agreement under which a fund of approximately \$10 million was established to enable the High

Commissioner to undertake measures of assistance for refugees who had been persecuted by reason of their nationality, but who are not entitled to indemnification under the German indemnification legislation. The agreement provided that those refugees who have suffered permanent injury to body or health should receive the same compensation as that accorded to other categories of victims of persecution.

Other projects that operate within the framework of the Commissioner's programs provide refugees with legal assistance, advice, representation in court, or assistance in approaching administrative authorities to solve problems resulting from the very fact that they are refugees.

High Commissioner's Programs

In 1951, it was estimated that there were, throughout the world, more than 1,250,000 refugees under the High Commissioner's mandate, of whom some 300,000 to 400,000 were non-settled and in need of some form of assistance. Of the latter, 120,000 were living in camps in Europe. By January 1, 1963, the number of non-settled mandate refugees, primarily in Europe, had been reduced to 45,000, of whom 4,100 were still living in camps in Austria, Germany, Greece, and Italy. Largely as a result of funds raised during World Refugee Year camp clearance measures are now fully financed. Unfortunately, however, the refugee influx in Europe, as elsewhere, continues.

By the end of 1962 the High Commissioner's Office had reached an important stage in its history and, so far as material assistance programs were concerned, three main tasks remained to be performed.

First, with the number of non-settled refugees under the High Commissioner's mandate in Europe reduced to manageable proportions, the last major programs on behalf of these "old" refugees were being completed. Projects for this purpose were approved by the Executive Committee as part of the 1962 and 1963 programs. Funds to implement them, however, are still inadequate.

Second, and still with regard to the refugees within the mandate, the High Commissioner's Office has to ensure that the unsettled refugees do not gradually re-form into a dense mass with all the accompanying distress and bitterness that that involves.

Third, the Office has to tackle new refugee problems in Africa, problems of which the Executive Committee is already aware.

To deal with the latter two tasks, a current program for complementary assistance has been prepared for 1963 and approved by the Executive Committee. This program represents a first practical attempt to determine the needs which the High Commissioner's Office will be called upon to meet in the years to come, in order, on the one hand, to supplement, as necessary and warrantable, the assistance rendered to refugees by the host country governments, the voluntary

agencies, the United States Escapee Program (USEP), and ICEM and, on the other hand, to provide the best solution for new refugee problems as they arise.

FIRST PROGRAMS OF ASSISTANCE

From the very first months of UNHCR's existence, it became clear that legal protection alone could not solve the problem of the thousands of refugees depending on international assistance for their re-establishment. There were, in certain countries, a number of refugees whose very existence depended on continued financial assistance from international sources. Opportunities for the emigration of refugees were diminishing and the handicapped found themselves barred from many schemes.

The General Assembly, in February 1952, authorized the High Commissioner to appeal for funds to provide emergency assistance to refugees. During the same year, a \$3.1 million grant from the Ford Foundation made it possible to start on a series of pilot projects for the integration of refugees.

In 1954, the High Commissioner proposed to the Assembly the setting up of a United Nations Refugee Fund (UNREF) to undertake, in cooperation with governments, the re-establishment of refugees, in and out of camps, who had not yet been firmly settled. The Assembly authorized the establishment of a Fund of a maximum of \$16 million, to be raised over four years from voluntary contributions. This target was passed during the latter months of 1958.

HIGH COMMISSIONER'S REGULAR PROGRAMS

At the end of the UNREF program, the Assembly decided that a more flexible system was needed to enable UNHCR to tackle situations as they emerged. Under this new system UNHCR assistance was to be provided under a series of annual programs devised to meet the needs of the moment. Since 1955, when UNHCR material assistance began, and up to December 31, 1962, the number of projects implemented or under implementation, totalled 1,862 (including projects for Hungarian refugees in 1956-57) with a total value of over \$90 million, of which 43 per cent was provided by UNHCR. In addition, substantial sums were allocated to relief action in North Africa and to new refugee situations.

While a large proportion of these projects concerned the local integration of refugees, the High Commissioner continually appealed to governments for the liberalization of immigration laws and regulations in favor of refugees. Special pleas were made to permit the reunion of families and the admission of the handicapped. It was not, however, until the influence of World Refugee Year made itself

felt that a real breakthrough in overseas migration for handicapped refugees took place, and increasingly substantial numbers of physically or socially handicapped refugees are now being resettled under special schemes. In this connection, a special survey of severely handicapped refugees was undertaken during 1962 under joint UNHCR, ICEM, and USEP auspices. Complete case histories of these refugees, many of whom had previously been rejected by migration missions, are being built up and many of those previously considered outside the possibilities of emigration are now finding homes under special arrangements.

Cooperation with other Agencies

The Office of UNHCR maintains close cooperation with specialized agencies of the United Nations, particularly ILO, WHO, and UNESCO, and with UNICEF as well as with other intergovernmental organizations, including the Council of Europe. An especially close partnership exists with ICEM, which is largely responsible for the transportation of UNHCR refugees to new homes, and with USEP, which finances and supports its own program for refugees.

Cooperation between UNHCR and the Red Cross, particularly the League of Red Cross, Red Crescent, Red Lion and Sun Societies is close, and the League has been the High Commissioner's operational partner in tackling a number of new refugee situations in Africa, as was pointed out above.

Cooperation between UNHCR and non-governmental organizations and voluntary agencies, particularly those which are members of the International Council of Voluntary Agencies (ICVA), is also close and fruitful. More than seventy of these are actively associated in the implementation of the High Commissioner's programs.

Nansen Medal Award

The Nansen Medal Award was instituted in 1954. It is named after Fridtjof Nansen of Norway, the League of Nations' first High Commissioner for Refugees, and is awarded each year for outstanding meritorious work on behalf of the refugees under the High Commissioner's mandate. The award committee is composed of representatives of Norway and Switzerland, of a representative of the Secretary-General of the Council of Europe, a representative of ICVA, and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, who acts as Chairman.

Awards have been received by the late Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt, in 1954; H.M. Queen Juliana of the Netherlands, in 1955; Mrs. Dorothy D. Houghton, in 1956; the League of Red Cross Societies, in 1957; David Hoggett, in 1958; the late Minister Oskar Helmer, in 1959; Christopher J. Chataway, M.P., Colin S. Jones, Trevor Philpot,

and Timothy Raison, in 1960, the four Englishmen who launched the idea of World Refugee Year; H.M. King Olav V of Norway, in 1961; and Sir Tasman Heyes, C.B.E., former Secretary of the Australian Commonwealth Department of Immigration, in 1962. Special posthumous awards were made to G. J. van Heuven Goedhart, first United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, and Pierre Jacobson, former Deputy Director of ICEM and Assistant Director-General of IRO.

Nobel Peace Prize

The Nobel Peace Prize for 1954 was awarded to the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. The prize-money—approximately \$35,000—was used for the closure of Camp Tinos in Greece.

QUESTIONS CONCERNING NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES

Introduction

The Charter, in addition to establishing a system of international supervision for territories placed under the trusteeship system, formalizes as an international responsibility the welfare and advancement of dependent peoples and their attainment of a "full measure of self-government."

Specifically under the provisions of Chapter XI, states members of the United Nations responsible for the administration of territories whose peoples have not yet attained a full measure of self-government recognize the principle that the interests of the inhabitants are paramount and accept as a sacred trust the obligation to promote their well-being to the utmost. To this end they undertake, among other obligations, to develop self-government, to take due account of the political aspirations of the peoples, and to assist them in the progressive development of their free political institutions. In order to keep the international community informed of progress in the territories, the administering members also undertake to transmit regularly to the Secretary-General "for information purposes, statistical and other information of a technical nature relating to economic, social and educational conditions in the territories for which they are respectively responsible."

At the end of the Second World War almost one-quarter of the world's population lived in dependent territories; only those territories, however, which were administered by members of the United Nations and for which the members concerned accepted the Charter principles and goals of advancement for dependent peoples contained in Chapter XI came within the purview of the United Nations as non-self-

governing territories. Since Spain and Portugal were not yet members of the United Nations the question of their dependent territories did not arise.

Over the period 1946-60 the examination of conditions in the territories also led to the discussion of the competence of the United Nations under Chapter XI. Broadly speaking, the discussions took place in three phases. In the first phase, covering the period approximately 1946-49, the General Assembly adopted decisions defining the scope, nature, and procedures relating to the transmission of information under Article 73 e. In the second phase, covering approximately the period 1949-55, the Assembly established its competence to examine the information transmitted by the administering members and to make recommendations on conditions in the territories. In the third phase, the Assembly asserted its competence to determine when the obligation to transmit information could cease, and also to determine when an obligation exists to transmit information. The major part of the work in this phase was undertaken during 1952-60.

By the end of 1960 it could be said that administering members, while making certain reservations as to the competence of the Assembly, accepted, nevertheless, the general principles laid down by the Assembly regarding Chapter XI of the Charter.

With the admission to the United Nations of seventeen new members in 1960—all of which had been former dependent territories—the movement for the liberation of colonial peoples was given further impetus. In response to this trend, the Assembly on December 15, 1960, adopted, without a dissenting vote, a Declaration on the granting of independence to colonial countries and peoples (*see page 385*). By this Declaration, the Assembly called for, among other things, immediate steps to be taken, in trust and non-self-governing territories or all other territories which have not yet attained independence, for the transfer of all power to the peoples of those territories, in accordance with their freely expressed will and desire, without distinction as to race, creed, or color, in order to enable them to enjoy complete independence and freedom. This Declaration, together with the principles of the Charter, especially those in Chapter XI, set the framework within which the United Nations now seeks to encourage the accelerated advance of the territories toward the goals of freedom, self-government, or independence.

Scope and Nature of Information Transmitted under Article 73 e

Adoption of Standard Form

Early in 1946, at its first session, the General Assembly drew to the attention of United Nations members the fact that the obligations

under Chapter XI were in force. Australia, Belgium, Denmark, France, the Netherlands, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, and the United States responded, and enumerated seventy-four territories on which they would send information. When the Fourth (Trusteeship) Committee of the Assembly discussed what should be done with the information, some administering members suggested that it was clear from the Charter that the information transmitted was "for information purposes" and that no further action by the Assembly was necessary. Other members recalled that the intention at San Francisco was to keep the international community informed of conditions in the territories; they suggested that the reports sent by the administering members should be made available to all members. Following this suggestion, the Assembly, in the latter part of 1946, asked the Secretary-General to summarize and analyze the information and established an *ad hoc* Committee composed of an equal number of administering members and non-administering members to meet in the following year to recommend procedures to be followed.

The *ad hoc* Committee, which met in 1947, reviewed the information which had been transmitted by the administering members, as summarized and analyzed by the Secretary-General. As the information received varied both in scope and in form between administering members, the Committee listed the following headings and subheadings on which it considered it would be desirable to have detailed comparable information from all administering members: economic, social, and educational conditions, including geography, history, people, government, and human rights. As some administering members considered that their Charter obligations under Article 73 e required information relating only to economic, social, and educational conditions, the Assembly approved the Standard Form for the guidance of members transmitting information with the additional information as optional. The Assembly also asked the administering members to send the required information annually, and not later than six months after the end of the administrative year in each territory.

Transmission of Political Information

Although Article 73 e describes the information to be transmitted by administering members as "statistical and other information relating to economic, social and educational conditions," in 1946 several administering members included in the information sent details regarding the system of government and administration. It was pointed out in the *ad hoc* Committee in 1947 that as the goal of dependent territories is full self-government, it was necessary for the United Nations also to receive information on constitutional and political developments in the territories. Although the Assembly retained information on government as an optional category in the Standard Form, in 1948

it invited all administering members to voluntarily include political information in their annual reports. The latest of these requests was dated December 19, 1961.

Among the original eight administering members, Australia, Denmark, the Netherlands, New Zealand, and the United States have always included information on governmental institutions in their territories; the United Kingdom decided in 1961 to transmit special information on political and constitutional developments in its territories. Belgium, up to 1960, when it ceased to be an administering member, provided information only on economic, social, and educational conditions. France, on the other hand, transmitted such information only in connection with the change in constitutional status of its territories. Since it began to transmit information in 1961, Spain has also included material on political conditions.

Territories on Which an Obligation Has Existed or Exists under the Charter to Transmit Information

Up to the end of 1959 no new territories were added to those enumerated in 1946. Although Portugal and Spain became United Nations members at the end of 1955, it was not until 1960 that Spain declared that it would transmit information under Article 73 e. The General Assembly took note of that decision and, in addition, on December 15, decided that the territories under Portugal at that time were non-self-governing territories within the meaning of Chapter XI and asked Portugal to transmit information accordingly. Portugal, however, still maintains that as the territories named are overseas provinces and are an integral part of the Portuguese nation, it has no obligations under Chapter XI.

The non-self-governing territories enumerated in 1946 by the eight administering members, the territories listed by the General Assembly on December 15, 1960, and the territories declared to be non-self-governing by the Assembly after 1960, are listed below. The dates in parentheses show the year after which information was no longer sent to the Secretary-General, owing to the accession to independence or other change in status.

TERRITORIES ENUMERATED BY THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY IN 1946

Australia
Cocos (Keeling) Islands^a
Papua

Belgium
Belgian Congo (1960)

Denmark
Greenland (1954)

France
French Equatorial Africa:
Chad (1960)

(Cont. page 345)

^a Originally administered as part of Singapore.

French Equatorial
Africa (*cont.*):
Gabon (1960)
Middle Congo (1960)
Ubangi Shari (1960)^b
French establishments
in India (1947)
French establishments
in Oceania (1947)
French Guiana (1947)
French Somaliland (1960)
French West Africa:
Dahomey (1960)
French Guinea (1958)
French Sudan (1956)^c
Ivory Coast (1960)
Mauritania (1960)
Niger Colony (1960)
Senegal (1960)
Upper Volta (1960)
Guadeloupe and
dependencies (1947)
Indo-China (1947)^d
Madagascar and
dependencies (1960)
(Comoro Archipelago)
Martinique (1947)
Morocco (1955)
New Caledonia and
dependencies (1947)
New Hebrides under
Anglo-French con-
dominium
Réunion (1947)
St. Pierre and Miquelon (1947)
Tunisia (1956)

Netherlands

Netherlands Indies (1948) and
Netherlands New Guinea
(West Irian) (1962)
Netherlands Antilles
(Curaçao) and Surinam (1955)

New Zealand

Cook Islands, including
Niue
Tokelau Islands

United Kingdom

Aden Colony and
Protectorate
Bahamas
Barbados
Basutoland
Bechuanaland Protectorate
Bermuda
British Guiana
British Honduras
Brunei
Cayman Islands^e
Cyprus (1960)
Falkland Islands
Fiji
Gambia
Gibraltar
Gilbert and Ellice Islands
Colony
Gold Coast Colony and
Protectorate (1957)^f
Hong Kong
Jamaica (1962)
Kenya Colony and
Protectorate
Leeward Islands:^g
Antigua
St. Kitts-Nevis-
Anguilla
Montserrat
Virgin Islands
Malayan Union (1957)
Malta (1947-1959)^h
Mauritius
Nigeria (1960)
North Borneo
Northern Rhodesia
Nyasaland

(*Cont. page 346*)

^b Attained independence as the Central African Republic.

^c Attained independence as Mali.

^d Comprising Cambodia, Laos, and Viet-Nam.

^e Originally administered as part of Jamaica.

^f Attained independence as Ghana.

^g The group of islands was enumerated in 1946 as one territory.

^h Status of non-self-governing territories since 1959.

**TERRITORIES ENUMERATED
BY THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY IN 1946 (*continued*)**

United Kingdom (<i>cont.</i>)	Windward Islands:¹
Pitcairn Island	Dominica
St. Helena and dependencies	Grenada
Sarawak	St. Lucia
Seychelles	St. Vincent
Sierra Leone (1961)	Zanzibar Protectorate
Singapore	United States of America
Solomon Islands	Alaska (1959)
Protectorate	American Samoa
Swaziland	Guam
Trinidad and Tobago (1962)	Hawaii (1959)
Turks and Caicos Islands ¹	Panama Canal Zone (1947)
Uganda Protectorate (1962)	Puerto Rico (1952)
	Virgin Islands

**TERRITORIES LISTED BY THE
GENERAL ASSEMBLY ON DECEMBER 15, 1960**

Spain	
Fernando Póo	Spanish Sahara, comprising
Ifni	Río de Oro and Saguia
Río Muni, comprising	Sakia-al Hamra
Equatorial Guinea and the islands	

**TERRITORIES DECLARED TO BE NON-SELF-GOVERNING
BY THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY AFTER 1960**

*Territories under Portuguese administration
as declared by the Assembly on December 15, 1960*

Portugal	
Angola, including the enclave of Cabinda	Macau and dependencies
Cape Verde Archipelago	Mozambique
Goa and dependencies ¹	São João Batista de Ajuda ¹
Guinea (called Portuguese Guinea)	São Tomé and Príncipe
	Timor and dependencies

*Territory under United Kingdom administration
as declared by the General Assembly on June 28, 1962*

United Kingdom, Southern Rhodesia

¹ Originally administered as part of Jamaica.

² The group of islands was enumerated in 1946 as one territory.

³ Nationally united with India in December 1961.

⁴ Nationally united with Dahomey in August 1961.

RESERVATIONS

Some of the territories on which information is transmitted are subject to claims by other member states as an integral part of their national territory. In 1962, during the discussions in the General Assembly's Fourth Committee and in the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, reservations as regards sovereignty over and the transmission of information were made as follows: by Argentina and the United Kingdom in respect of the Falkland Islands (Islas Malvinas) and the Falkland Island dependencies; by Guatemala, Mexico, and the United Kingdom in respect to British Honduras (Belize); by Spain and the United Kingdom in respect of Gibraltar; by Iraq and the United Kingdom in respect of Aden; by Morocco and Spain in respect of Ifni, Sakia-al Hamra, Río de Oro, and Ceuta and Melilla; by the Philippines and the United Kingdom in respect of North Borneo.

In connection with the decision of the General Assembly that the territories under its administration are non-self-governing territories within the meaning of Chapter XI of the Charter, Portugal has reserved its position on the ground that under its Constitution, those territories are Overseas Provinces and are therefore an integral part of the Portuguese nation. The United Kingdom has reserved its position in regard to the Assembly decision naming Southern Rhodesia as a non-self-governing territory, as it considers that Southern Rhodesia is a self-governing colony.

Questions Relating to the Examination of Information Transmitted under Article 73 e

Establishment of the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories

In addition to its recommendations on the form and content of the information to be transmitted under Article 73 e, the *ad hoc* Committee, in 1947, also proposed that the General Assembly establish a special committee to examine the information. Some administering members expressed reservations as to the right of the Assembly to do so as there were no Charter provisions to this effect. The Assembly, however, accepted the suggestion of the *ad hoc* Committee and set up a Special Committee with an equal number of administering and non-administering members to meet in 1948 to examine and to report on the economic, social, and educational conditions in the non-self-governing territories.

In 1948, in spite of reservations of a legal nature of some of the administering members as to the competence of the Assembly, the

Special Committee again recommended to the Assembly that a similar Committee meet again the next year. In 1949 the Assembly established a Committee on a three-year basis. This Committee, called the Special Committee on Information transmitted under Article 73 e of the Charter, met in 1950, 1951, and 1952, and was renewed in 1952, 1955, and 1958, each time for three years. In 1955, the Committee was renamed the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, by which name it is presently known.

On December 19, 1961, a few days after it had established a Special Committee on the Situation with Regard to the Implementation of the Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples, the General Assembly, recognizing the usefulness and value of the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, decided to continue it on the same basis as hitherto, until such time as the Assembly decided that the principles embodied in Chapter XI of the Charter and in the Declaration had been fully implemented. However, on December 19, 1962, in the light of the rapid progress required for the accession of non-self-governing territories to independence, the Assembly decided to review the situation at its eighteenth session in 1963, with a view to taking a decision on the further continuation of the Committee on Information.

Following the practice adopted in 1947, the Committee which examines the information from non-self-governing territories has always been composed of the administering members transmitting information and an equal number of non-administering members, elected by the Fourth Committee on behalf of the Assembly, on as wide a geographical basis as possible. Since 1952 the elected members have served a three-year term. The number of members constituting the Committee varies with the number of administering members transmitting information under Article 73 e. Thus, from 1947 to 1954, the Committee had sixteen members: the original eight administering members and eight non-administering members; following the withdrawal of Denmark in 1954, when Greenland became self-governing, until 1960 the Committee had fourteen members. In 1961, Belgium withdrew from the Committee following the independence of the Republic of the Congo (Leopoldville), but to the administering members were added Portugal and Spain, bringing the total membership of the Committee once again to sixteen. At the end of 1962, following the agreement reached on West Irian, the Netherlands withdrew from the Committee, so that in 1963 it had fourteen members: Australia, France, New Zealand, Portugal, Spain, the United Kingdom, and the United States; and Ecuador, Honduras, Liberia, Mexico, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Upper Volta.

For twelve years the terms of reference of the Committee remained substantially the same as when it was established in 1949. The Committee was instructed by the General Assembly "to examine, . . .

the summaries and analysis of information transmitted under Article 73 e of the Charter on the economic, social and educational conditions." It is also instructed to submit reports to the Assembly containing "such procedural recommendations as it may deem fit and such substantive recommendations as it may deem desirable relating to the functional fields generally but not with respect to individual Territories."

Examination of Information

On December 19, 1961, when renewing the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories for an indefinite period, the Assembly widened its terms of reference to include the examination of political and constitutional information transmitted by the administering members, as well as economic, social, and educational conditions, and it also asked the Committee to submit its observations and conclusions thereon. Furthermore, the Committee was instructed to undertake intensive studies of political, educational, economic, and social conditions and problems of territories located in the same area or region, except where circumstances required individual consideration.

The Committee works in close collaboration with the International Labour Organisation, the Food and Agriculture Organization, the World Health Organization, and UNESCO. These specialized agencies inform the Committee of their activities of interest to the non-self-governing territories and are invited by the Assembly to make recommendations on the form and content of the information transmitted; they are also invited to make observations and suggest ways in which they can be of help to the non-self-governing territories.

In addition to the examination of the information regularly received from the administering members, the Assembly, on the basis of a decision taken in 1955, undertook a review of the progress made in the territories toward the goals established by the Charter in Chapter XI since the establishment of the United Nations. At the request of the Assembly, the Committee in 1960 submitted its observations and conclusions on the progress report.

The Committee uses as a basis for its work summaries of information on each of the individual territories and special studies relating to specific conditions in the territories. The Secretariat prepares for the Committee full summaries once every three years and in the two intervening years the Committee reviews changes which have taken place as shown in the relevant statistical data. Since 1950 the Committee has adopted the practice of giving its special attention to economic, social, and educational problems once in every three years. In 1962 the Committee reviewed educational conditions and examined political information for the first time.

The Committee also draws up a special report on the topic of its special study each year which it submits to the Assembly. These reports cover a wider range of problems which may have been discussed in the Committee itself, and contain observations and conclusions which represent a consensus resulting from the cooperation between administering and non-administering members of the committee. After the special reports are approved by the Assembly they are sent to the administering members, to the Economic and Social Council, to the regional economic commissions, to the Trusteeship Council, and to the specialized agencies for their consideration. Several of the administering members forward the special reports on economic, social, and educational conditions to the governments of the territories under their administration. In 1962 the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories also transmitted its report and the studies prepared for it to the Special Committee on the Declaration established in 1961.

Each special report, together with the background studies prepared by the Secretariat and the specialized agencies for that year, is published and placed on sale. Thus, the United Nations makes available to the public studies which, together with the published summaries on individual territories, combine to give a more detailed view of the overall progress achieved in the attainments of Charter objectives.

Economic, Social, and Educational Advancement

Educational Conditions

One of the most urgent educational problems in the non-self-governing territories has been and remains the eradication of illiteracy. The extent of the problem has been brought out by UNESCO, which estimates that five years after the Second World War, illiteracy rates were between seventy-five to ninety-six per cent in some twenty-two non-self-governing territories and between fifty and seventy-five per cent in another seven territories. From the beginning, the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories has therefore been keenly concerned with the provision of adequate schooling for all sectors of the populations in the territories.

In 1949 the Committee studied the schooling facilities in the territories, giving particular attention to the education provided for indigenous inhabitants as compared with that provided for settler groups. This study led to recommendations by the Assembly to the administering members, asking them to provide "equal treatment" in education for all peoples in the territories, to promote the use of indigenous languages, and to take steps, in cooperation with UNESCO,

to eradicate illiteracy. In response to the Assembly's request in 1949, UNESCO each year submits a report on measures taken in, or of interest to, the territories for the eradication of illiteracy.

Some of the special areas the Committee has studied are the establishment of universal free and compulsory primary education, expansion of secondary education, teacher-training, problems of stagnation and wastage, education of women and girls, community development and education, technical training and education, including agricultural extension services, and training of health and medical personnel.

In 1953, the Assembly endorsed the following educational objectives drawn up by the Committee: to develop moral and civic consciousness and responsibility among the peoples, and to enable them to take an increasing share of responsibility in the conduct of their own affairs; to raise the standards of living of the peoples by helping them to improve their economic productivity and standards of health; to promote the social progress of the territories, taking into account the basic cultural values and the aspirations of the peoples concerned; and to secure the extension of the intellectual development of the peoples so as to provide for them access to all levels of culture.

In 1956, on the basis of the special report on education prepared by the Committee, the Assembly recommended to the administering members that they intensify their efforts to increase and improve educational facilities in all the territories and formulate plans—with targets and dates—for various aspects of educational development, including the establishment or extension of universal, free, and compulsory primary education and general literacy. It also recommended that administering members take steps to enable the indigenous peoples to assume more responsibility for the formulation and implementation of education programs.

From the middle of the nineteen-fifties, the general acceleration of change in non-self-governing territories, particularly in Africa, led to a more rapid expansion of education facilities. On the basis of the UNESCO report, however, the Committee noted in 1960 that there were still many areas where facilities were limited and, even though improved, did not meet the needs of the people. In 1962, when the Committee last reviewed education in the territories, it noted that effective measures had not yet been taken toward this end in all territories. The Committee emphasized the urgent need to expand facilities for secondary and higher education; drew attention to the need for measures to remedy wastage and raise the general standards; and drew attention to the importance of the education of women and girls, suggesting that greater efforts be made to equip them for their role in society. The Committee considered that one of the most serious educational problems in the territories was the teacher shortage and

the lack of training facilities. It suggested, among other measures, that priority be given to the training of teachers in territorial or regional institutes, and consideration be given to possibilities for recruiting staff overseas. The Committee expressed the hope that the responsible authorities would make use of all forms of assistance to raise the standard of literacy of all the inhabitants.

Social Conditions

The Committee has defined social development as nothing less than the whole process of economic, social, and political change and cultural advancement, considered in terms of the well-being of society and the individual.

In 1952, when the Committee reviewed social conditions for the first time, it drew attention to the basic problem in all the non-self-governing territories of improving health conditions, and stressed that not only were greater efforts needed to combat epidemic and endemic diseases and to reduce infant mortality, but also to provide better nutrition, more adequate water supplies, environmental sanitation, and housing. Recognizing that the peoples of the territories were faced with problems of social adjustments to the impact of cultural and economic change, the Committee also stressed the importance in government policy of giving equal importance to both preventive—by means of legislation, education, and other measures—and social action.

The Committee's work has, over the period of years, included surveys and studies on: public health administration and services, the training of medical and paramedical personnel, labor conditions, problems of urban and rural development, social welfare services, and community development as a process designed to promote better living for the whole community.

In 1960 when the Committee reviewed the progress achieved in the non-self-governing territories since the establishment of the United Nations, it observed that the increasing role of government in the social field was a distinctive development of the period. Among other trends in the period under review were: a greater emphasis on preventive work as distinct from the previous concentration on remedial work; increased attention on the family rather than the individual as the main focus of social welfare activities; and the recognition of the need for training of welfare staff.

The Committee also observed that there had been considerable improvement in health conditions and in the establishment and strengthening of health services in the territories. For instance, advances had been made in the reduction of infant mortality rates and in the control of the major epidemic and endemic diseases. But in spite of the progress made much remained to be done. The Committee urged that greater efforts be given to the control of communicable

diseases, improvement of environmental sanitation and in the diets of the population, and the training of medical and health personnel.

One problem which has received particular attention is racial discrimination. In 1952, on the basis of the Committee's first report on social conditions, the Assembly recommended action by governments designed to improve race relations in the territories, such as the abolition of discriminatory laws and practices contrary to the principles of the Charter and of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. At the same time the Assembly recognized that the establishment of improved race relations largely depends on educational policies.

In 1958 the Assembly urged the administering members to implement the recommendations it had made in 1952, and, particularly, to examine all discriminatory laws and statutes and ordinances in force in the territories under their administration with a view to their abolition. The administering members were invited to include in their annual reports information on the measures taken by them to implement the recommendations.

In 1960 the Committee observed that discrimination on grounds of race or color continued in some of the non-self-governing territories. It recognized that much progress had been made and that the whole question of race relations affected and was affected by the degree of participation of the indigenous inhabitants. Once more the Committee emphasized that in its view, racial discrimination was not only a violation of human rights but also a deterrent to progress in all fields.

On December 15, 1960, the General Assembly again adopted a resolution on the continued existence of racial discrimination in some non-self-governing territories. The Assembly recommended that the administering members immediately rescind or revoke all laws and regulations which tend to encourage or sanction, directly or indirectly, discriminatory policies and practices based on racial considerations, and that they do their utmost to discourage such practices by all other means possible. The Assembly also urged the administering members to give full and immediate effect to the recommendation of the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, namely, that measures to solve the problem of race relations should include the extension to all inhabitants of the full exercise of basic political rights, in particular the right to vote, and the establishment of equality among the members of all races inhabiting the non-self-governing territories. It also requested the administering members to furnish all relevant information on this matter to the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories so as to enable the latter to submit a report to the Assembly at its sixteenth session.

On the basis of the special information requested from administering members, the Assembly in 1961 and 1962, discussed racial discrimination in non-self-governing territories as a special item on

its agenda. In both years, the Assembly found it necessary to reaffirm its previous recommendations to the administering members and to urge them to bring to an end all forms of racial discrimination as a means of contributing towards the implementation of the Declaration on the granting of independence to colonial countries and peoples, which it had adopted in 1960 (*see page 385*). In its decision of December 19, 1962, the Assembly urged the administering members to give immediate effect to the Declaration so that an end will be put to racial discrimination in all forms and in all fields and also decided to refer the report on racial discrimination in the non-self-governing territories to the Special Committee regarding the implementation of the Declaration.

Economic Conditions

Traditionally, colonial economies have been subordinated to the interests of metropolitan countries. Under the United Nations Charter, however, members administering non-self-governing territories accept the principle that the interests of the inhabitants are paramount. Applying this principle, the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories has, therefore, been mainly concerned with economic development as a means of raising the standards of living of the peoples themselves. From the outset it has urged the formulation of long-term development plans and programs for the territories and has stressed the importance of government action to set in motion a process of sustained and balanced development supported by material, financial, and technical assistance.

In 1951, noting that in many territories special emphasis was being given to building up the infrastructure, the Committee emphasized that economic progress should not be considered as an end in itself but as a basic aspect of human development. In the non-self-governing territories, therefore, all development should be directed to raising economic, social, and educational standards as this was a concomitant of their advancement toward self-government. Although the policies of the administering members were in general harmony with the principles set forth in Articles 1 and 73 of the Charter and, in most cases, they were providing, increasingly, financial assistance for the economic development of these territories, such assistance was insufficient to launch sustained economic growth. The Committee urged that further efforts be made by the administering members, taking into account measures being planned by other organs of the United Nations.

By 1954, in most territories, because of the financial burdens already incurred, a trend developed toward allocating a greater proportion of the resources to revenue-producing schemes with minimal attention to schemes for improvement. This led the Committee to

stress that many urgent social reforms were essential parts of economic programs, because populations deficient in health, education, and welfare might be unable to increase productivity unless a vigorous policy were pursued for the expansion of social and educational services.

The Committee has also studied a number of economic problems of particular importance in the non-self-governing territories. Because agriculture still forms the basis of the economy of most of the territories, many of the special studies have been on aspects of the rural economy. Between 1951 and 1960 the Committee studied problems and prices of tropical exports, marketing, fisheries, livestock, development of cooperatives and credit institutions, diversification of agricultural production, land tenure and the utilization of land, and production for local consumption and export. It has also reviewed in some detail questions relating to mining, labor, and employment and international trade.

The Committee last examined economic conditions in the non-self-governing territories in 1960. The main trend of economic development in the territories up to that time—as it emerges from the special reports and the ten-year review, together with the Committee's observations and conclusions—may be summarized as follows: although considerable progress had been made with the help of development planning and financial assistance provided by their metropolitan countries, the economy of the territories remained in general at a low level of development. There was still, in most, a predominant reliance on subsistence agriculture or the export of one or a few primary products, as a result of which their economies were vulnerable to fluctuations in world prices and were affected deeply by changes in the terms of trade. Furthermore, as the rate of growth of the territories did not appear to have kept pace with that in some more developed countries, a wide gap remained between the standards of living in these territories and the more advanced countries and the gap was still widening. For many territories there was insufficient information to enable the Committee to assess the extent to which such development, as had taken place, had been reflected in rising living standards. The Committee urged that the utilization of the resources, especially mineral deposits, of the non-self-governing territories should be in the best interests of their inhabitants and should lead to the attainment of a degree of self-reliance and to the establishment of a stable economy.

International Cooperation for Advancement

Under Article 73 d of the Charter, United Nations members responsible for the administration of non-self-governing territories accept the obligation "to promote constructive measures of development, to en-

courage research, and to cooperate with one another and, when and where appropriate, with specialized international bodies with a view to the practical achievement of the social, economic, and scientific purposes set forth." The principle that conditions in the non-self-governing territories are included within the purview of international economic and social cooperation is also indicated in Article 55 of the Charter, which provides that the United Nations shall promote measures of economic and social advancement "with a view to the creation of conditions of stability and well-being which are necessary for peaceful and free relations among nations."

Cooperation as set out in the Charter has developed within the general programs of the Economic and Social Council and of the specialized agencies as well as through the regional commissions. This cooperation involves, on the one hand, the consideration of conditions in the territories in any relevant study of economic and social problems, and, on the other hand, the extension to the territories of international operational programs of technical cooperation. Since 1950, many of the recommendations of the Economic and Social Council and those of the Assembly on economic and social matters, and particularly those relating to human rights, have included within their scope non-self-governing territories.

The participation of the non-self-governing territories as beneficiaries of the technical assistance programs of the United Nations received the attention of the Assembly in 1948, when it drew to the attention of the administering members the arrangements for technical assistance approved by the Economic and Social Council. In 1950, following the establishment of the expanded program of technical assistance, the Assembly invited the administering members which needed technical assistance for the economic, social, and educational advancement of their territories to submit their requests under the program. It also recommended that the administering members include in the information transmitted under Article 73 e, as full a report as possible on all applications made in behalf of their respective territories and on the manner in which technical assistance received from the United Nations and the specialized agencies had been integrated into long-range development programs.

Over the years there has been a steady increase in the participation of the non-self-governing territories in technical cooperation programs of the United Nations and the specialized agencies, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, and the Special Fund. For the period 1963-64, projects approved under the expanded program of technical assistance amounts to \$3.6 million as compared with \$2.4 million for the previous period 1961-62. There has also been a corresponding increase in the funds allocated under the United Nations regular budget for technical assistance. Other agencies pro-

viding technical services to the territories under their regular programs are the International Labour Organisation, the Food and Agriculture Organization, UNESCO, the World Health Organization, and UNICEF.

SPECIAL SCHOLARSHIP PROGRAM FOR NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES

On November 22, 1955, the General Assembly invited member states to assist the non-self-governing territories by offering special scholarships to students from those areas. Over twenty states have offered scholarships. In response to the Assembly's request, publicity is given to these scholarships by the administering members, the territorial governments, and by UNESCO in its publication *Study Abroad*. Effective assistance of the administering member concerned, particularly in facilitating travel, is needed, however, before a student from a territory can take up a scholarship that has been awarded him. Because of this, the Assembly in a series of resolutions, the latest of which was dated December 19, 1962, has repeatedly asked administering members to take all necessary measures to ensure that the scholarships may all be fully utilized.

In 1960-61 the states offering these special scholarships included Brazil, Burma, Ceylon, Czechoslovakia, Ghana, Greece, Hungary, India, Iran, Israel, Italy, Mexico, Philippines, Poland, Romania, Tunisia, Turkey, USSR, United States, Venezuela, and Yugoslavia. In 1961-62, 283 new scholarships were awarded as compared with 288 in 1961. This figure does not include all scholarships awarded directly by governments since, in some cases, scholarships are not handled through the Secretariat of the United Nations. In addition, some 3,000 scholarships were awarded by administering members through their own schemes. These included 452 awarded by Australia, 32 by New Zealand, and 2,456 by the United Kingdom.

Questions Relating to the Political Advancement of the Territories

Attainment of Full Self-Government

In the early years, the question of the political advancement of the territories was discussed in the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories in the context of the responsibility of the administering members to transmit information regularly. The Charter, however, does not specify which are the territories referred to in

Chapter XI, who should determine whether or not such an obligation exists, nor when the transmission of information may cease once it has been undertaken.

In 1946, the General Assembly did not settle these questions but took note of the list of seventy-four territories which had been enumerated by eight administering members. In 1947, however, information was not transmitted to the Secretary-General on twelve of the enumerated territories: from France on Guadeloupe, Martinique, Guiana, Réunion, New Caledonia, the French settlements in India, the French settlements in Oceania, Saint-Pierre and Miquelon, and Indochina; from the United States on the Panama Canal Zone; or from the United Kingdom on Malta.

Discussions continued in the Assembly during the following years on the question of the cessation of transmission of information and constitutional change, for, as a result of the latter, transmission of information might be considered unnecessary. Much of the discussions centered on whether, and in what form, apart from independence, a territory could be said to have attained "a full measure of self-government." When Indonesia became independent in 1950, the General Assembly noted that its independence had been followed by its admission to the United Nations, and took further note that a report pursuant to Article 73 e would no longer be presented.

Over the period 1948-55, by a number of resolutions, the Assembly decided that it was essential for the United Nations to be informed of the changes in the constitutional status of a territory, in consequence of which the administering member considered it no longer necessary to transmit information under Article 73 e. It requested the administering members to communicate to the Secretary-General the pertinent legal texts, and asked the Committee on Information to examine the information relating to constitutional change. In so doing, the Assembly affirmed that it was within its responsibility to express an opinion on the principles which had guided, or might in the future guide, the members concerned in enumerating the territories for which the obligation exists to transmit information, and asserted its competence to decide when the obligation to transmit information no longer applied.

At its eighth session in 1953, the Assembly approved a final list of factors for use both by itself and by the administering members as a guide in determining whether a territory is or is not within the scope of Chapter XI of the Charter. The Assembly considered that for a territory to be deemed self-governing in economic, social, or educational affairs, it is essential that its people shall have attained a full measure of self-government; that "each concrete case should be considered and decided upon in the light of the particular circumstances of that case, and taking into account the right of self-determination of peoples"; that the manner in which a territory can become fully

self-governing is primarily through the attainment of independence, although this can also be achieved by the union with or association of the territory on a footing of equality with other component parts of the metropolitan country, or other countries; and that the validity of any form of association between a non-self-governing territory and a metropolitan, or any other, country depended upon the fully expressed will of the people at the time of the decision. It instructed the Committee on Information to study, in the light of these factors, each case in which the transmission of information was discontinued.

From 1953 to 1955, the Assembly considered three cases of cessation of the transmission of information. The procedures adopted and the criteria established by the Assembly were first applied when it considered the cessation of transmission of information on Puerto Rico in 1953. This was followed by the case of Greenland in 1954 and that of the Netherlands Antilles and Surinam in 1955, when the same procedures were applied. In all three cases the administering member communicated to the Secretary-General information on the constitutional changes which had taken place leading to the decision that it was no longer necessary to transmit information under Article 73 e. The communications, including the legal instruments affecting the new status of the territory, were examined first by the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories. Later, the Assembly, on the recommendation of its Fourth Committee, accepted the new status of all three territories. The decision on Puerto Rico was adopted on November 27, 1953, that on Greenland on November 22, 1954, and that on the Netherlands Antilles and Surinam on December 15, 1955.

In 1954 the Assembly proposed that, with the agreement of the administering member concerned, a mission from the United Nations should visit a territory before any change in its political status took place, in order to ascertain the opinion of the population.

No new cases of territories attaining full self-government were considered by the Assembly until 1959. In April that year, the Government of France communicated to the Secretary-General information relating to constitutional changes in French West Africa, French Equatorial Africa, French Somaliland, Madagascar, and the Comoro Archipelago, by which these territories were stated to have become autonomous. Later, in June, the United States communicated to the Secretary-General information on the constitutional changes in Alaska, as a result of which that territory had achieved statehood. This was followed by a similar communication in September in respect of Hawaii.

On the basis of a decision taken by the Assembly in 1956, the Fourth Committee reviewed the information received from the Governments concerned regarding the change in status of these territories. As the French territories were still in a process of evolution, the

Assembly deferred taking a decision on them. By a separate decision adopted on December 12, 1959, the Assembly took note of the opinion of the Government of the United States of America that owing to the new constitutional status of Alaska and Hawaii, it was no longer appropriate or necessary for it to transmit information under Article 73 e; expressed the opinion that, based on its examination of the documentation and the explanations provided, the peoples of Alaska and Hawaii had effectively exercised their right to self-determination and had freely chosen their new status; and, finally, considered it appropriate that the transmission of information should cease.

When territories have attained independence, the procedures for the cessation of transmission of information have not been followed.

Principles Determining When a Territory is Non-Self-Governing and an Obligation Exists to Transmit Information

In December 1955, Albania, Austria, Bulgaria, Cambodia, Ceylon, Finland, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Jordan, Laos, Libya, Nepal, Portugal, Romania, and Spain became members of the United Nations. Early in 1956, following the same procedure applied in 1946, the Secretary-General asked these sixteen members to inform him whether they administered any territories whose people had not yet attained a full measure of self-government. Later that year, when Morocco, Tunisia, and the Sudan became members, the Secretary-General addressed a similar inquiry to these new members. The same procedure was followed on the admission to membership of Japan, Ghana, the Federation of Malaya, and Guinea, and other States admitted as United Nations members thereafter.

At the eleventh session of the Assembly the Fourth Committee examined the replies received. Albania, Austria, Bulgaria, Cambodia, Ceylon, Finland, Ghana, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Jordan, Laos, Libya, Morocco, Nepal, Portugal, Romania, the Sudan, and Tunisia replied that they did not have any non-self-governing territories within the meaning of Chapter XI.

The discussions in the Fourth Committee led to a debate on the competence of the Assembly to decide on the application of Chapter XI. Underlying this issue, however, was the question whether Portugal had an international obligation to transmit information on its territories, especially those in Africa. The discussions omitted reference to Spain because no reply had yet been received from that Government, and it was understood that one would be forthcoming later.

On the basis of the discussions, the Fourth Committee accepted a proposal suggesting that the Assembly establish an *ad hoc* committee "to study the application of the provisions of Chapter XI of the Charter in the case of members newly admitted to the United Na-

tions" and, in particular, the replies of these members informing the Secretary-General whether they were responsible for the administration of any territories referred to in Article 73. This proposal was, however, rejected by the Assembly.

In 1957 and 1958 the Fourth Committee again adopted proposals aimed at asserting the competence of the Assembly to determine the obligation of members under Chapter XI, by setting up a special committee to study this question. In 1957 the Fourth Committee's proposal was rejected and in 1958 it was not voted upon by the Assembly.

In 1959 it had become evident that the movement of colonial peoples towards self-government and independence was gaining pace. Many of the former French territories had by then become autonomous and many other territories were rapidly approaching the goal of self-government or independence. On the other hand, Spain had in 1958 informed the Secretary-General that it "possesses no non-self-governing territories, since the territories subject to its sovereignty in Africa are, in accordance with the legislation now in force, considered to be classified as provinces of Spain"; nevertheless, although there was no legal obligation, it would place the publications on the African provinces of Spain at the disposal of the Secretary-General "for his enlightenment."

Against this background of events, on December 12, 1959 the Assembly accepted a proposal by the Fourth Committee to set up a committee of six to study the principles which should guide members in deciding whether or not an obligation exists to transmit information under Article 73 e. The Assembly requested the Secretary-General to prepare for the use of this committee an account of the history of this matter, including a summary of the opinions on the subject which have been expressed by member states in the past and of the relevant legal treaties on the interpretation of the Charter. It also requested member states to communicate to the Secretary-General their views on these principles.

The special committee of six members, consisting of Ghana, India, Morocco, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, and the United States met in 1960, and concluded that, *prima facie*, there is an obligation to transmit information in respect of a territory which is geographically separate and is distinct ethnically and/or culturally from the country administering it. It drew up a list of twelve principles which should guide members in determining their responsibilities under Chapter XI.

At its fifteenth session in 1960, the Assembly adopted the list of principles. It also decided on December 15, 1960 that the Cape Verde Archipelago; Guinea, called Portuguese Guinea; São Tomé and Príncipe, and their dependencies; São João Batista de Ajuda; Angola, including the enclave of Cabinda; Mozambique; Goa and dependencies,

called the State of India; Macau and dependencies; and Timor and dependencies, were non-self-governing territories. It therefore declared that Portugal had an obligation to transmit information on these territories.

Noting also that in the course of the discussions Spain had undertaken to transmit information under Article 73 e, the Assembly invited the Governments of Spain and Portugal to participate in the work of the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories.

**Participation of the Non-Self-Governing Territories
in the Work of the United Nations
and Dissemination of Information on the United Nations**

PARTICIPATION OF NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES

To help the peoples of non-self-governing territories advance more rapidly toward self-government, the General Assembly has recommended measures aimed at associating the dependent peoples more closely with the work of the United Nations. The two principal recommendations have dealt with the participation of the territories in the work of the United Nations and specialized agencies and the availability to the territories of information on the work of the United Nations concerning non-self-governing territories.

In 1952, the Assembly first noted that provisions existed in the constitutions of some of the specialized agencies whereby non-self-governing territories could participate as associate-members, and asked the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories to study the possibility of more closely associating the territories in its work.

Since that time, however, no means have been found whereby representatives of non-self-governing territories can participate directly in the work of the United Nations, and especially in the Fourth Committee and the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories. The main difficulty has been that United Nations organs and the Committees of the Assembly do not provide for any form of associate membership. In addition, the administering members have insisted upon the principle of unity of representation, considering that the participation of indigenous inhabitants can and should be only through their inclusion in national delegations. Thus, while indigenous inhabitants have sometimes been included in the delegations of administering members, they do not directly represent the territories or the non-self-governing peoples.

On December 12, 1959 the Assembly invited administering members to take steps aimed at the admission of the territories under their

administration as associate members of the specialized agencies, and of the regional economic commissions of the United Nations, in particular the Economic Commission for Africa.

On December 15, 1960 the Assembly again stated that the participation of representatives of indigenous peoples in the consideration of questions of fundamental concern to their welfare is not only useful and desirable but could do much to accelerate the process of emancipation. Therefore, the Assembly, in addition to repeating its previous invitation concerning the participation of non-self-governing territories in the work of the specialized agencies and the regional economic commissions, invited the administering members to arrange for the participation of representatives of the territories in the work of the appropriate organs of the United Nations.

The participation of non-self-governing territories as associate members in the United Nations regional economic commissions and the specialized agencies is now accepted by most of the administering members. Associate members participate fully in the work of the subsidiary bodies of the regional commissions and in the discussions of the plenary sessions, but normally without a vote.

HEARING OF PETITIONERS

In 1961, in order to obtain a better understanding of the political aspirations of the people, the Fourth Committee of the Assembly for the first time granted a hearing to a petitioner from one of the territories under Portuguese administration and to a petitioner from British Guiana. In 1962, the Committee heard petitioners from Basutoland and Swaziland under United Kingdom administration and from Río Muni and Fernando Póo under Spanish administration, and a number of petitioners from territories under Portuguese administration.

DISSEMINATION OF INFORMATION ON THE UNITED NATIONS

The principle underlying the public information work of the United Nations is that the Organization cannot achieve the purposes for which it has been created unless the people of the world are informed of its aims and activities. The dissemination of information on the United Nations is no less essential in the non-self-governing territories.

The Assembly in 1959, therefore, requested the administering members to adopt necessary measures for the dissemination of information concerning the United Nations among the inhabitants of the non-self-governing territories and for this purpose to seek the active support and participation of the organizations representative of these inhabitants.

At its 1960 session the Assembly had before it a report prepared by the Secretary-General on this question. After examining this report, the Assembly decided, on December 15, 1960, that the measures that had been adopted so far by some administering members did not include steps to secure the active support and participation of representative organizations. Accordingly, it invited the administering members to make further efforts to secure this support and participation and, in addition, asked them to broaden the scope and accelerate the process of dissemination of information on the United Nations, its purposes and principles, and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights so as to develop public awareness of and interest in the political activities and peaceful objectives of the United Nations. It also requested the Secretary-General to take action toward the establishment of information centers in the non-self-governing territories.

On December 19, 1961, the Assembly adopted a further decision on this question, this time inviting the administering members to include the Declaration in the curricula of educational institutions in all the non-self-governing territories, and asked the Secretary-General to ensure the circulation and dissemination of the Declaration. It also asked for a similar dissemination of its decision on racial discrimination adopted on the same day.

In 1962 the Secretary-General reported on the measures taken to disseminate the information. Both the resolution on racial discrimination and the Declaration had been translated into some twenty principal local languages of the non-self-governing territories as well as into the languages of the administering members, and texts had been printed in the form of leaflets and wallsheets. Special radio talks had also been prepared in as many of the languages as possible and, with the assistance of the administering members, the material prepared had been used in various non-self-governing territories. Portugal, however, had not replied to the Secretary-General's request for assistance in the dissemination of the material. By a decision adopted on December 19, 1962, the Assembly decided to keep the question under review and asked for the continued efforts of all concerned, and in particular that of Portugal, in the dissemination of the Declaration.

Preparation and Training of Indigenous Civil and Technical Cadres

Since 1949, the General Assembly and the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories have emphasized the importance of training indigenous inhabitants in the economic, social, and educational fields as an integral part of their preparation for self-government. Until 1960, however, studies made by the Committee and recommendations to the administering members had concentrated

mainly on aspects of technical training. At its fifteenth session, the Assembly—with its membership increased by seventeen newly-independent African states which had experienced the transition from a dependent status to one of sovereignty—took action to help the remaining non-self-governing territories, so that on attainment of their independence they would find themselves adequately staffed with both civil and technical personnel.

On December 15, 1960, the Assembly noted that the information submitted showed evidence of a serious shortage of training facilities for personnel of all kinds in the territories. As the absence of trained personnel had in the past resulted in serious dislocations in certain territories upon their attainment of independence, the Assembly urged the administering members to take immediate steps aimed at the rapid development of training the indigenous and civil technical cadres and at replacing expatriate personnel by indigenous officers. The Assembly considered, furthermore, that existence of adequate personnel was not only indispensable in the effective implementation of plans and programs of development but also necessary in the transfer of full control of powers in conditions of stability. In order to keep this question under study, the Assembly further requested the administering members to transmit special reports setting out all available information on the training, facilities for, and the current strength, composition, and state of preparation of civil and technical services in the territories under their administration, so as to enable the Committee on Information to report thereon to the Assembly at its sixteenth session.

In 1961, on December 19, the Assembly found the situation as regards the indigenous civil and technical personnel unsatisfactory, especially as it had adopted the Declaration on the granting of independence to colonial countries and peoples calling for the transfer of all powers to the peoples of the territories without any conditions or reservations (*see page 385*). Accordingly the Assembly urged administering members to take immediately all steps necessary to increase the strength of the indigenous civil and technical cadres at all levels and to accelerate their training. It further decided to keep the matter under study.

In the territories now nearing independence there has been a trend toward re-organization of the civil services to provide for the wider participation of the inhabitants, and greater efforts are being made for the provision of the necessary training. In many cases, international assistance has been requested for this purpose.

Territories under Portuguese Administration

On December 15, 1960 the General Assembly had declared that the Portuguese overseas territories were non-self-governing and that Portu-

gal had an obligation to transmit information to the Secretary-General on them. Portugal reserved its position at this time, but, a year later, in 1961, did not send any information on its territories, nor did it participate in the work of the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories. When the Assembly met later, an item was added to the agenda at the request of India, entitled "Non-Compliance of Portugal with Chapter XI of the Charter of the United Nations and General Assembly resolutions 1542 (XV)". The discussions on this item and the events in Angola which were brought to the attention of the Assembly and the Security Council in April and June 1961, further highlighted the need for the United Nations to be informed on conditions in all the Portuguese territories.

On December 19, 1961, the Assembly decided to establish a Special Committee to examine, as a matter of urgency, available information concerning all the territories under Portuguese administration, and to formulate its observations, conclusions and recommendations for the consideration of the General Assembly and any other body appointed to assist the Assembly in the implementation of the Declaration on the granting of independence to colonial countries and peoples.

The Special Committee, comprising Bulgaria, Ceylon, Colombia, Cyprus, Guatemala, Guinea, and Nigeria as members, began its work in March 1962 and submitted its report to the Assembly in August.

The report of the Special Committee covers the Cape Verde Archipelago; Guinea, called "Portuguese Guinea"; São Tomé and Príncipe and their dependencies; Angola, including the enclave of Cabinda; Mozambique; Macau and dependencies; and Timor and dependencies. The Special Committee decided to exclude from the scope of its work São João Batista de Ajuda and Goa, because these territories had already been nationally united with Dahomey and India respectively.

In the first part of its work, the Special Committee examined background papers prepared by the Secretariat on the basis of available official and authoritative sources on the territories, and background papers setting out the general policies of Portugal in its overseas territories, the constitutional status of the territories, the legal status of the inhabitants, and new measures introduced by Portugal since early 1961. Since most of the published information did not go beyond the end of 1960, in order to obtain more up-to-date information, the Committee sought to visit the territories under Portuguese administration but the Portuguese Government did not make it possible for the Committee to do so. The Committee then visited countries in Africa and heard representatives of twenty-eight political organizations from the territories under Portuguese administration in Africa and the adjacent area. It also heard several individuals and a

number of refugees from Angola, including a Portuguese ex-army doctor.

The Committee's report reviews, in two parts, the situation prevailing in the Portuguese territories up to and after December 31, 1961. The Committee concluded that the basic dissatisfaction of the people in the territories under Portuguese administration arose from the essentially colonial relationship the territories have with Portugal, which aimed at imposing on the indigenous population Portuguese culture and citizenship and denied them opportunities for the development of their own personalities and the fulfillment of their own aspirations. While Portugal maintained that the territories were "overseas provinces," the majority of the indigenous inhabitants did not have the same civil and political rights as the inhabitants of Portugal, and in many territories they had been subject to forced labor practices. The Committee also found that the reforms which Portugal claimed to have introduced, not only did not meet the basic aspirations of the peoples but had not yet brought about any significant changes in the political, economic, social, and educational conditions. Although since September 1961 the special status of the indigenous inhabitants had been abolished, no significant advance had been made in extending political rights to all the peoples, since the right to vote continued to be based on the ability to read and write Portuguese, and most of the indigenous persons were illiterate.

The Committee recommended that it would be in the best interest of Portugal to reconsider its attitude in the light of the historic changes taking place. It suggested that the most urgent step forward for Portugal would be to recognize the right of the peoples of the territories to independence, and that talks should begin immediately between Portugal and accredited representatives of political groups existing outside the territories for the transfer of power.

In connection with the discussion of the Special Committee's report, the Fourth Committee of the Assembly heard petitioners of four political parties of Angola and one each from Cabinda, Mozambique, São Tomé, and Príncipe, and two from Guinea, called Portuguese Guinea.

During discussions in the Fourth Committee and in the Assembly, Portugal maintained that the territories referred to were an integral part of the Portuguese nation and Portugal had no international responsibilities for these territories. The acquiescence of the United Nations in the annexation of Goa by the Indian Union showed that the majority of states was not concerned with upholding the basic principles of the Charter. Portugal had not found it possible to cooperate with the Committees concerned with conditions in Portuguese territories established by the Assembly because their methods of work "were based on partiality, bias, distortion" and they accepted

information provided by irresponsible petitioners illegally heard. For political reasons, the Assembly refused to give any recognition to Portuguese policy, which aimed at creating an "integrated multiracial society" in Africa, "drawing on the cultural and moral values of all races and peoples," and at furthering the participation of the population in all fields of activity. Portuguese policy provided the same political rights, and the same educational and social opportunities to all. In carrying out this policy, Portugal has already introduced far-reaching reforms, and further reforms were in process.

Representatives of over sixty countries who spoke in the Fourth Committee on the Portuguese territories, were unanimous in their feeling that colonialism was an anachronism and that it was useless for Portugal to try to introduce reforms which did not meet the aspirations of the people for self-determination and independence. As Portugal continued to try to retain its colonies by force and by recourse to war, it was the duty of the United Nations to find a solution to the non-compliance of Portugal with the provisions of the Charter and Assembly resolutions.

On December 14, 1962, the Assembly adopted a decision condemning the attitude of Portugal as being incompatible with the Charter. It reaffirmed the inalienable right of the peoples of the territories under Portuguese administration to self-determination and independence, and urgently invited the Portuguese Government to give effect to the recommendations contained in the Special Committee's report. The Assembly also called on member states to use their influence to induce Portugal to carry out its obligations as a member of the Organization and earnestly requested "all Member States to refrain from offering the Portuguese Government any assistance which would enable it to continue its repression of the peoples of the Territories under Portuguese administration, and for this purpose, to take measures to prevent the sale and supply of arms and military equipment sold or supplied to the Portuguese Government."

In the same decision, the Assembly requested the Special Committee on the Situation with Regard to the Implementation of the Declaration to give high priority to an examination of the territories under Portuguese administration and requested the Security Council, in case the Portuguese Government should refuse to comply with the Assembly's resolutions, to take all appropriate measures to secure the compliance of Portugal with its obligations as a member state.

In another resolution of the same day, the Assembly requested the Secretary-General to set up a special program for training indigenous inhabitants from territories under Portuguese administration in functions and techniques of administration and in the fields of economics, law, health and sanitation, teacher and leadership training, and in such other fields as necessary. In establishing this special pro-

gram for the indigenous people of these territories, the Secretary-General was asked to make use of the existing United Nations programs of technical cooperation—notably the expanded program of technical assistance and the Special Fund—so as to minimize the charge on the regular budget, and particularly to make available to those indigenous inhabitants, who are or who may be temporarily residing outside the territories, the benefits of such programs. The specialized agencies were invited to cooperate, by offering every possible assistance and such facilities and resources as they may be able to provide; and member states were invited to make available, directly or through voluntary agencies, all-expense scholarships both for the completion of secondary education and for various forms of higher education. Furthermore, the Assembly asked member states whose universities enjoy administrative autonomy, to permit direct communication between the Secretary-General and the heads of those universities with a view to granting scholarships to inhabitants in territories under Portuguese administration.

TRUSTEESHIP QUESTIONS

Operation of the International Trusteeship System

Supervision of the administration of the trust territories by the Trusteeship Council is carried out in the following three ways: (a) examining the annual report on each territory submitted by the administering authority concerned; (b) receiving and examining petitions; and (c) sending out a periodic visiting mission to the territories to see for itself conditions on the spot.

The annual reports contain detailed information on political, economic, social, and educational conditions existing in the territories. The Council is assisted in its examination of these reports by a special representative from the territory concerned, who supplements the report with the latest information on events in the territory and answers questions posed by members of the Council. Following its examination, the Council submits to the General Assembly its own report comprising an outline of conditions in each territory, the conclusions and recommendations arrived at as the result of its examination, and the observations of individual members of the Council.

The Council also takes into consideration, during its examination of conditions, petitions concerning general problems in the territory. Petitions may be submitted in writing, or orally by petitioners who appear before the Council.

Due to their location in three geographical areas, namely, West and East Africa, and the Pacific, each trust territory is visited regu-

larly every three years. The visiting mission submits a report on all aspects of conditions in the territory, with special attention to subjects in which the Council, or the General Assembly, has shown particular interest. Whenever available, the report of a visiting mission is examined by the Council together with the administering authority's report on that territory. Of the three territories remaining under trusteeship, two—Nauru and New Guinea—were last visited regularly in 1962, while the third, the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, is to be visited early in 1964.

In addition to the regular periodic visiting missions, the Council may, in certain circumstances, send special missions for a specific purpose to a given territory. A number of such special missions have been sent to various territories.

The General Assembly, for its part, regularly reviews progress through its examination of the annual report submitted to it by the Trusteeship Council. As a result of this examination, the Assembly has adopted a number of resolutions and recommendations, most of which have had general application to the international trusteeship system, or to the trust territories as a whole, or to individual trust territories.

Former Trust Territories

British Togoland Attains Independence

Studies made by visiting missions have, in a number of instances, had a direct influence on the territory's future. In 1955, the Trusteeship Council sent a special mission to Togoland under United Kingdom administration to investigate the question of that territory's future.

The mission submitted proposals to the General Assembly, which, in December 1955, resolved that a plebiscite—the first ever to be held in a trust territory—should be conducted in British Togoland to determine whether the people desired a union with the neighboring Gold Coast (then about to attain independence) or wished to continue under trusteeship, pending an ultimate settlement of the territory's future.

The plebiscite, under United Nations supervision, took place on May 9, 1956. The United Nations Plebiscite Commissioner was Eduardo Espinosa y Prieto of Mexico. The resulting poll showed a vote of 93,365 favoring union with an independent Gold Coast and 67,422 supporting the alternative choice. The General Assembly decided to interpret the results of the plebiscite as a whole, and accordingly the territory was united with the Gold Coast to form the new independent state of Ghana on March 6, 1957. Ghana became a member of the United Nations two days later.

Togo Emerges as Independent State

Following the grant in 1956 of a new constitution to Togoland under French administration, a plebiscite was organized by the administering authority to ascertain the wishes of the people regarding their future. The result showed that a majority was in favor of autonomy within the French Union. However, following discussions in the United Nations, it was decided that general elections should be held in the territory under United Nations supervision. Accordingly, a Commissioner for the elections, Max H. Dorsinville of Haiti, with United Nations observers, supervised the elections which were held on April 27, 1958. As a result, a government in favor of independence was returned and thus the way opened for the termination of trusteeship.

The General Assembly, on November 14, 1958, adopted a resolution in which it noted that the Governments of France and of the Republic of Togoland had mutually agreed that Togoland should attain independence in 1960. The Assembly resolved that the trusteeship agreement for the territory would be terminated on April 27, 1960, and recommended that upon attainment of independence French Togoland should be admitted to the United Nations. Togo became a member of the United Nations on September 20, 1960.

French Cameroons Achieves Independence

In March 1959, the General Assembly voted to end the trusteeship agreement for the Cameroons under French administration. The Assembly, at the same time, expressed confidence that the elections for a new Legislative Assembly in the country would be held as soon after that as possible; and recommended that the Cameroons under French administration be admitted to the United Nations when it became independent.

This was achieved on January 1, 1960, and the former trust territory, now the Republic of Cameroon, was admitted to United Nations membership on September 20, 1960.

Plebiscites in British Cameroons

Plebiscites to determine the future of the Cameroons under United Kingdom administration were recommended by the General Assembly at its resumed thirteenth session, on March 13, 1959. The Assembly took this step in order to give the inhabitants of the former German territory of Kamerun, estimated in mid-1959 at 1,632,000, an opportunity to express their wishes as to their future when Nigeria, with which the trust territory had been administered as an integral part, achieved independence on October 1, 1960. To this end, the Assembly

decided that separate plebiscites should be held in the northern and southern sections of the trust territory. They were to be conducted by the United Kingdom, as the administering authority, and supervised by the United Nations. Dr. Djalal Abdoh, of Iran, who was appointed United Nations Plebiscite Commissioner, was assisted in the territory by a team of observers.

The first of these plebiscites took place in the Northern Cameroons in November 1959. The voters were asked if they wished the Northern Cameroons to be part of the Northern Region of Nigeria when the Federation of Nigeria became independent, or whether they favored deciding the future of their country at a later date. Of the total votes cast, 70,546 were in favor of the second alternative and 42,788 were in favor of the first.

Since political leaders in the Southern Cameroons could not agree concerning the plebiscite, or the questions to be asked, or the qualifications for voting, the General Assembly at its fourteenth session, in 1959, decided to defer consultation with the people to a time not later than March 1961. The Assembly also recommended that the administering authority, in pursuance of Article 76 b of the Charter and in consultation with the United Nations Plebiscite Commissioner, organize under United Nations supervision a further plebiscite in the Northern Cameroons during the same period as that for the Southern Cameroons. In both plebiscites, which took place on February 11 and 12, 1961, the questions confronting the voters were: (1) Do you wish to achieve independence by joining the independent Federation of Nigeria? or, (2) Do you wish to achieve independence by joining the independent Republic of Cameroon?

The results of the two plebiscites showed that a majority of the voters in the Northern Cameroons (146,296 for Nigeria; 97,659 for Cameroon) wished to join the independent Federation of Nigeria, while in the Southern Cameroons (97,741 for Nigeria; 233,571 for Cameroon) a majority voted in favor of joining the independent Republic of the Cameroon.

At its resumed fifteenth session, the General Assembly, on April 21, 1961, decided that the trusteeship agreement concerning the Cameroons under British administration should be terminated with respect to the Northern Cameroons on June 1, 1961, upon its joining the Federation of Nigeria; and with respect to the Southern Cameroons, on October 1, 1961, upon its joining the Republic of Cameroon.

Somaliland under Italian Administration

In accordance with the Trusteeship Agreement of 1950 Somaliland was to become a sovereign independent state on December 2, 1960. By 1956, an elected Legislative Assembly possessing wide legislative

powers and a cabinet system of government had been established. Elections were held early in 1959 for a new Assembly, which was empowered to draw up a constitution for independent Somalia. The constitution was approved at the end of May 1960, and in accordance with a resolution of the General Assembly at its fourteenth session, the country became independent on July 1, 1960, five months in advance of the date set by the trusteeship agreement. The Republic of Somalia—which includes not only the former trust territory of Somaliland but also the former British Protectorate of Somaliland—became a member of the United Nations on September 20, 1960.

Tanganyika

When elections were held for the first time in 1958 and 1959 they were based on the so-called parity system whereby the three main racial communities in Tanganyika were granted equal representation among the unofficial members of the Legislative Council. They were on a restricted suffrage basis with compulsory tripartite voting. The concern of the Trusteeship Council, as well as of the General Assembly, was that this system of separate representation should be regarded by the administering authority as merely a transitional phase in the territory's evolution toward an integral society in which Africans would play their due part.

In 1960, reforms were introduced in the electoral system and in the composition of the Legislative Council, whereby the parity system of racial representation and the compulsory tripartite vote were abolished, and a legislature composed almost exclusively of elected representatives, was created.

At its resumed fifteenth session, in April 1961, the General Assembly was informed that full internal self-government had been introduced in Tanganyika on May 1, 1960, and that Tanganyika would become a fully independent state in December 1961. During its sixteenth session in November 1961, the Assembly resolved, in agreement with the administering authority, that the trusteeship agreement should cease to be in force when Tanganyika became an independent state on December 9, 1961. It was admitted to membership in the United Nations on December 14, 1961.

Western Samoa

The Trusteeship Council had been made aware of the Samoan people's desire for self-government through a petition presented to it by Samoan leaders as early as 1947. As a result, the Council sent its first special mission to the territory in 1948. Subsequently, the Government of New Zealand re-organized the political structure of the territory by establishing a Council of State and a Legislative Assembly

with powers to make laws for the peace, order, and good government of Western Samoa and to dispose of the revenues of the territory.

Further progressive steps towards full internal self-government were gradually taken by the Samoan people in cooperation with the administering authority and with the approval of the Trusteeship Council. By the end of 1959, a cabinet system of government was introduced and the first prime minister was elected. During the same year, a working committee on self-government was established to consider the constitutional problems involved in the transition to independence. In September 1960 a Constitutional Convention was convened to consider the draft constitution submitted by the working committee.

A resolution adopted by the General Assembly at its fifteenth session set forth the basis for a plebiscite to be held in Western Samoa under the supervision of the United Nations; the questions to be put to the voter were: (1) Do you agree with the constitution adopted by the Constitutional Convention of October 28, 1960? or (2) Do you agree that on January 1, 1962, Western Samoa should become an independent state on the basis of that constitution?

The plebiscite took place on May 9, 1961, and was supervised by a United Nations Commissioner—Najmuddine Rifai, of the United Arab Republic—elected by the Assembly.

The final results of the plebiscite showed that 37,897 persons, or 86.1 per cent of the total number of estimated eligible voters, participated in the plebiscite; 31,426 persons, or 83 per cent of the people who voted, were in favor of the constitution, and 29,882 persons, or 79 per cent, were in favor of the independence of Western Samoa.

At its sixteenth session the Assembly endorsed the results of the plebiscite and resolved that the trusteeship agreement for Western Samoa should cease to be in force on January 1, 1962, when Western Samoa became an independent sovereign state.

Ruanda-Urundi

By 1960 communal elections on the basis of adult male suffrage were held in the territory. A provisional government was established in Ruanda, and six departments headed by indigenous commissioners were established in Urundi. The administering authority announced its intention of holding national elections in January 1961 on the basis of universal adult suffrage for the purpose of constituting national assemblies for Ruanda and Urundi. It invited the General Assembly to send a mission to observe the elections. The Assembly recommended at the first part of its fifteenth session, in December 1960, that a conference fully representative of political parties be held early in 1961 before the elections. It set up a three-man United

Nations Commission for Ruanda-Urundi to attend the political conference envisaged above and to supervise the elections as well as the preparatory measures preceding them.

The Commission attended a conference at Ostend, Belgium, early in January 1961, on the future of Ruanda-Urundi, but a *coup d'état* in Ruanda at the end of January 1961 made the implementation of the recommendations of the General Assembly infinitely more difficult. The Assembly re-examined the situation at the second part of its fifteenth session in April 1961, reaffirmed its previous resolutions on Ruanda-Urundi, and decided that the legislative elections as well as the referendum on the question of the Mwami of Ruanda should be held in August 1961, under United Nations supervision.

Legislative elections were held in Burundi (vernacular for Urundi) on September 18, 1961, under United Nations supervision and a government was formed on September 28. On October 13 the Prime Minister was assassinated, and the United Nations Commission was requested by the General Assembly to carry out an investigation.

In Ruanda, the legislative elections as well as the referendum on the Mwami were held under United Nations supervision on September 25, 1961. The results of the referendum gave a four-to-one vote against the retention of the institution of the Mwami. As a result, the new legislature established a republican regime in Ruanda. Following its consideration of these events, the General Assembly in February 1962 set up a five-member Commission to ensure the achievement, with the full cooperation of the administering authority and national authorities, of certain essential objectives before independence.

The General Assembly reconvened in June 1962 to consider the report of the Commission and as a result decided, in agreement with the administering authority, to terminate the Trusteeship Agreement for Ruanda-Urundi on July 1, 1962, on which date Rwanda and Burundi emerged as two independent and sovereign states. The two states were admitted to membership in the United Nations on September 18, 1962.

Remaining Trust Territories

Nauru

Nauru is a small island situated in the central Pacific, with an area of 5,263 acres, mostly a central plateau containing extensive phosphate deposits. It is administered by Australia on behalf of the joint administering authority of Australia, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom. In 1962 it had a population of 4,849, consisting of 2,516 Nauruans, 1,173 other Pacific Islanders, 748 Chinese, and 412 Euro-

peans. The other Pacific Islanders—mostly Gilbertese—the Chinese, and the majority of the Europeans are employed by the British Phosphate Commissioners.

Nauru's almost complete lack of fertile soil and uncertain rainfall make it most unlikely that it will be able to support its rapidly growing population in the future. That fact and the exhaustion of the phosphate deposits within some 40 years have impressed on all concerned the necessity to find a new home for the Nauruan community.

The Nauruan people naturally wish to retain their national identity and the search for a solution has included inspections of islands off the Australian and New Guinea coasts as well as the suggested establishment of a Nauruan community center in Australia within easy reach of a main center of population. To assist in the handling of this problem, a specially chosen officer has been appointed Director of Nauruan Resettlement.

Meanwhile, through their elected Local Government Council, the Nauruans are more or less self-governing in their domestic affairs. They enjoy a comparatively high standard of living due to the royalties they receive from the phosphate mining and have the benefits of free education and free medical services.

New Guinea

The trust territory of New Guinea consists of the northeastern part of the island of New Guinea and numerous adjacent islands, the most important of which are New Britain, New Ireland, Manus, and Bougainville. It has a land area of approximately 93,000 square miles. In 1962 its indigenous population was estimated at 1,469,320 and the non-indigenous at 15,536.

The forbidding topography of much of the territory, consisting of rugged mountains and extensive swamps, and its indigenous population, whose transition from a primitive state has only just begun in many areas, present unusual administrative problems and difficulties. The administering authority has stated that full administrative control over the entire territory would be completed by the end of 1963.

The trust territory and the territory of Papua are administered jointly by an Administrator, who is assisted by an Administrator's Council of six members. The Legislative Council of Papua and New Guinea has a membership of thirty-seven, comprising the Administrator, fourteen official members, twelve elected members—of whom six are New Guineans—and ten appointed members.

Following the Trusteeship Council's endorsement of the 1962 Visiting Mission's proposal for the election of a Parliament of Papua and New Guinea, a Select Committee of the Legislative Council

recommended an increase in membership of the Legislative Council from thirty-seven to sixty-four, of whom fifty-four members would be elected by universal adult suffrage from a common roll; ten of these fifty-four seats would, as an interim measure, be reserved for non-indigenous members.

Elected local government councils, of which there were thirty-eight in 1962, form the basis for the political advancement of the New Guineans. In addition, there is an advisory council in each of the nine districts into which the territory is divided administratively, as well as advisory councils in seven of the principal towns.

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development undertook, in 1962, to make a comprehensive economy survey of the territory of Papua and New Guinea, with a view to planning a development program designed to expand and stimulate the economy. A Bank mission, which will be in the field in 1963, will assess the resources of the territory and the factors affecting economic growth; assess the amount of capital likely to be available to the territory over the next five years from internal and other sources; and examine the effect of current policies and measures on the development of the economy.

There are comprehensive plans for secondary and tertiary education, including the selection for higher academic education of an annual quota of deserving candidates; the establishment of a central residential administrative college; the establishment in the territory of a university; the establishment of a multiracial full standard teachers' college; the provision of higher technical training facilities; and the expansion of secondary education throughout the territory.

Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands

The United States-administered Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, located in the central Pacific and spread over three million square miles of ocean, comprises 2,141 islands with a total land area of 687 square miles. In 1962, only ninety-seven of these islands were inhabited, by some 80,980 people, who were classed as Micronesians.

In 1962, the administration of the territory was unified under a single civilian authority and the administrative headquarters were moved from Guam to Saipan.

The Council of Micronesia, which came into being on September 15, 1961, adopted a territory flag. The Council, under its elected Micronesian chairman, will in the near future transform itself into a fully competent Territorial Legislature. The basic units of local government are the chartered municipalities and, above them, the district or island congresses with their elected members and powers to deal with local matters.

The economy of the territory is based primarily upon subsistence agriculture and fishing, with the making of copra, government employment, harvesting of trochus, and the manufacture of handicrafts providing supplemental cash income. The fact that nearly four-fifths of the territorial budget still has to be met by contributions from the United States Government led the Council to express the hope that efforts would be continued to develop local resources by all possible means, such as the improvement of agriculture, the diversification of export crops—now limited almost entirely to copra and cacao—the encouragement of small-scale industrial enterprises, and the development of a fishing industry.

A free public school system exists, consisting of elementary schools of one to six grades, junior and senior high schools, and professional, technical, and adult education facilities. The Pacific Islands Central School, on Ponape, provides courses of study in agricultural, commercial, general, and industrial curricula.

Other Questions Considered by the Trusteeship Council

In addition to its principal function of examining conditions in the trust territories, the Trusteeship Council has undertaken the study of a number of other questions relating to the operation of the international trusteeship system. In some cases the Council established a committee to deal with a particular question as, for instance, it did with regard to administrative unions affecting certain trust territories, rural economic development in trust territories, and the revision of the questionnaire. All the committees have now been disbanded. Other questions which the Council considered included the abolition of discriminatory laws and practices and of corporal punishment in trust territories; the use of the United Nations flag in trust territories; the participation of indigenous inhabitants of trust territories in the work of the Trusteeship Council; the effects of the European Economic Community on the development of certain trust territories; the preparation and training of indigenous civil cadres in the trust territories; and economic aid for Somalia.

In accordance with procedures set out in Council resolutions, the Secretary-General annually submits reports on the dissemination of information on the United Nations and the international trusteeship system in trust territories, as well as on offers by United Nations member states of study and training facilities for inhabitants of trust territories.

Thirteen member states of the United Nations have offered scholarships and training facilities to inhabitants of trust territories since the scholarship program was started in 1952. To date, no applications for scholarships from the three territories remaining under

trusteeship have been received. Provision for scholarships and higher education for the inhabitants of these territories is made by the administering authorities concerned.

Naturally, the attainment by the trust territories of the objectives of the international trusteeship system, namely, self-government or independence, has been of primary importance to the Trusteeship Council. In pursuance of this interest, the Council has continually pressed for the establishment of intermediate target dates and final timelimit for the attainment of the objectives. This interest is shared by the Special Committee on the Situation with Regard to the Implementation of the Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples, and cooperation is maintained between the two organs (*see page 386*).

The Question of South West Africa

With one exception, all the territories under League of Nations mandate became either independent states or were placed under the international trusteeship system after the establishment of the United Nations. The exception was the former German colony of South West Africa, over which South Africa was awarded a mandate after the First World War. The territory, about 318,000 square miles in extent, had at the time of the 1960 census, a population of 525,064 inhabitants, including 73,154 Europeans.

The South African representative told the General Assembly in 1946 that South West Africa was sparsely populated and unable to support itself, and that a majority of the territory's inhabitants desired its incorporation with South Africa. The Assembly, unable to accede to the incorporation, recommended instead that South West Africa be placed under the international trusteeship system, a recommendation which it reaffirmed annually until 1954.

In 1947 the South African Government informed the United Nations that, in view of the Assembly's position, it had decided not to proceed with the incorporation. While it would not place the territory under trusteeship, it would maintain the *status quo* and continue to administer the territory in the spirit of the mandate, and would submit reports on its administration of the territory for the information of the United Nations. One such report, for the year 1946, was submitted in 1947 and referred by the Assembly to the Trusteeship Council. Although the Assembly recommended that South Africa continue reporting annually on its administration of South West Africa, the South African Government, objecting to the method of dealing with the one report submitted, notified the United Nations in 1949 that it had decided not to forward any further reports.

The Assembly, also in 1949, asked the International Court of

Justice for an advisory opinion on the international status of South West Africa and the obligations of South Africa in regard to the territory. The advisory opinion was given on July 11, 1950 (*see page 419*).

Committees of the General Assembly

At its 1950 session, the Assembly accepted the Court's opinion. It established an *ad hoc* committee to confer with the South African Government on means of implementing that opinion and to examine any annual reports and petitions that might be submitted.

The *ad hoc* committee met with representatives of the South African Government from 1951 to 1953. The South African Government did not accept the opinion of the International Court and was unwilling to accept any form of United Nations supervision over the territory's administration. It claimed that the mandate had lapsed with the dissolution of the League of Nations and that it consequently had no international obligations in regard to the territory. It was, however, prepared to renew some of its international obligations under the League mandate by negotiating a new agreement with France, the United Kingdom, and the United States, which it termed the three remaining members of the Principal Allied and Associated Powers of the First World War. This proposal was found unacceptable by the *ad hoc* committee and was rejected in 1953 by the Assembly. The Assembly affirmed that, to implement the advisory opinion of the Court, the supervision of the administration of the territory, while not exceeding that which applied under the mandates system, should be exercised by the United Nations and not by the three powers.

At the same time the Assembly considered that it would not be fulfilling its obligations toward the inhabitants of South West Africa if it were not to assume the supervisory responsibilities formerly exercised by the League of Nations. While petitions had been received and their contents noted by the Assembly in 1953, no annual reports had been submitted by the South African Government since 1947.

COMMITTEE ON SOUTH WEST AFRICA

In the circumstances, the Assembly in 1953 established the Committee on South West Africa to examine not only reports and petitions, but also "such information and documentation as may be available" relating to the territory, and to make annual reports to the Assembly on conditions in the territory. The Assembly also authorized the Committee to continue negotiations with the South African Government and urged the latter to cooperate with the Committee. The

South African Government refused to meet or cooperate with the Committee.

In the absence of reports by South Africa, the Committee examined conditions in the territory from 1954 to 1961 on the basis of documentation supplied to it by the Secretariat, documentation consisting of official publications of the South West African administration and the South African Government, local press reports, and a growing number of written and oral petitions.

The annual examination of conditions in South West Africa and of petitions was carried out under special procedures conforming as far as possible to those of the League of Nations mandates system, which led to two further advisory opinions by the International Court. The first question arose when the Assembly decided in 1954 that it would take decisions on reports and petitions relating to South West Africa by a two-thirds majority vote, whereas South Africa claimed that under the League of Nations unanimity rule, it had been empowered to exercise a veto. The Court's opinion on the question, given in 1955, confirmed the propriety of the Assembly's decision (*see page 419*). On the second question, relating to the granting of hearings of petitioners, the Court gave its opinion in 1956 that the Assembly was entitled to authorize the Committee on South West Africa to grant hearings (*see page 419*). Both Court opinions were accepted by the Assembly.

Beginning in 1954, the Assembly received annual reports from the Committee on South West Africa covering political, economic, social, and educational conditions in the territory. The Committee observed that the South African Government administered the territory on the basis of a policy of *apartheid* and "white supremacy," which was contrary to the mandate, the Charter, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the advisory opinions of the International Court of Justice, and resolutions of the Assembly. The observations of the Committee and its recommendations for improving conditions in the territory were endorsed each year by the Assembly, including recommendations calling for assistance by specialized agencies and UNICEF.

In 1956 the Committee reported that the situation in the territory required close re-examination by the Assembly, particularly in regard to the failure of the South African Government to cooperate in the implementation of the advisory opinion of the International Court concerning the status of the territory.

That year, at its eleventh session, the Assembly requested the Secretary-General to explore ways and means of satisfactorily solving the question of South West Africa and to take whatever steps he deemed necessary, with a view to finding a satisfactory solution in line with the principles of the Charter and the 1950 advisory opinion of the International Court.

At the same time, the Assembly asked the Committee, in addition to its regular functions, to study the question of the legal action open to organs of the United Nations or to states members of the United Nations or of the former League of Nations to ensure that the Government of South Africa fulfilled its obligations under the Charter. The special report accordingly submitted by the Committee was drawn to the attention of member states by the Assembly in 1957. The Assembly postponed its own final consideration of the report until a later session.

GOOD OFFICES COMMITTEE

Meanwhile, in a further attempt to reach a solution to the problem by agreement with South Africa, the Assembly established a Good Offices Committee to discuss with the Government a basis for an agreement which would continue to accord an international status to the territory. This Committee, composed of Brazil, the United Kingdom, and the United States, met with representatives of South Africa in Pretoria in 1958 and reported to the Assembly at the thirteenth session.

The Committee indicated that its own proposals, involving United Nations supervision over the whole territory either under a modified mandates system or under the trusteeship system, were unacceptable to the South African Government. On the other hand, the South African Government renewed its proposal for the conclusion of an agreement with France, the United Kingdom, and the United States, a proposal which had already been rejected by the Assembly in 1953. The Committee reported, however, that if the Assembly were willing to consider a solution based on the partition of the territory, with the northern portion—which contained a majority of the Native population—to be placed under trusteeship and the balance of the territory to be annexed to South Africa, the South African Government would be willing to investigate the practicability of such a scheme and, if it proved practicable, would submit proposals to the United Nations for partitioning the territory. The Committee expressed the hope that the Assembly would encourage the South African Government to undertake such an investigation.

The Assembly rejected the suggestion but invited the Good Offices Committee to renew discussions with the South African Government to find a basis for an agreement which would continue to accord an international status to the mandated territory "as a whole." The Committee reported to the Assembly in 1959 that it had not succeeded in finding a basis for agreement under its terms of reference.

At its fourteenth session in 1959, the Assembly again drew the attention of member states to the special report on legal action which had been submitted to it in 1957 by the Committee on South West

Africa. In addition, the Assembly renewed its call for negotiations, this time to place the territory under the international trusteeship system. It fell to the Committee on South West Africa to approach the South African Government. The Government expressed its willingness to meet with an *ad hoc* body, appointed after consultation with the South African Government and given terms of reference which would enable it to explore all possibilities, but made it clear that it would not meet with the Committee to discuss trusteeship for the territory.

After considering the Committee's report during its fifteenth session in 1960, the Assembly took cognizance, on December 18, of the instituting of contentious proceedings against South Africa by Ethiopia and Liberia in the International Court of Justice on November 4 of that year (*see page 415*). The Assembly concluded that the dispute which had arisen between Ethiopia, Liberia, and other members, on the one hand, and the South African Government, on the other, had not been and could not be solved by negotiation; it commended the Governments of Ethiopia and Liberia for their initiative in instituting the proceedings. Moreover, the Assembly invited the Committee to go to South West Africa to investigate and to make proposals to the Assembly on conditions for restoring a climate of peace and security and on steps which would enable the indigenous inhabitants to achieve self-government and independence as soon as possible.

In April 1961, after the Committee had informed it of the South African Government's refusal to cooperate, the Assembly requested the Committee to carry out its mission, if necessary without the cooperation of the South African Government. In addition, the Assembly called the attention of the Security Council to the situation regarding South West Africa, which, in the Assembly's view, would endanger international peace and security if allowed to continue. It also appealed to those member states which had close and continuous relations with the South African Government to bring all their influence to bear on that Government to adjust its conduct to its obligations under the Charter and to give effect to the Assembly's resolutions with respect to South West Africa.

The Committee, unable to obtain visas either for the territory or for South Africa, conducted its investigations in Ghana, Tanganyika, and the United Arab Republic, where it heard the views of refugees, political leaders, and petitioners from South West Africa, as well as of public officials of African countries or territories regarding the situation in the mandated territory.

In October 1961, the Committee reported to the Assembly that it had found no indication that the South African Government intended to change its policies and practices in the territory. In view of the extremely delicate and explosive situation to which those

policies and practices had led, the Committee recommended the termination of South African administration over South West Africa, the immediate institution of a United Nations presence in the territory, and the eventual attainment of independence by the territory.

SPECIAL COMMITTEE ON SOUTH WEST AFRICA

At its sixteenth session in 1961, the Assembly proclaimed the inalienable right of the people of South West Africa to independence and national sovereignty. It replaced the Committee on South West Africa by a Special Committee for South West Africa, which was asked, in addition to the main tasks assigned to the former Committee, to achieve the following objectives in consultation with South Africa:

- a visit to the territory of South West Africa before May 1, 1962;
- the evacuation of all military forces of South Africa from the territory;

- the release of all political prisoners without distinction as to party or race;

- the repeal of all laws or regulations confining the indigenous inhabitants in reserves and denying them all freedom of movement, expression, and association, and of all other laws and regulations which establish and maintain the intolerable system of *apartheid*;

- preparations for general elections to the Legislative Assembly, based on universal adult suffrage, to be held as soon as possible under the supervision and control of the United Nations;

- advice and assistance to the government resulting from the general elections, with a view to preparing the territory for full independence;

- coordination of the economic and social assistance which the specialized agencies would provide the people in order to promote their moral and material welfare; and

- the return to the territory of indigenous inhabitants without risk of imprisonment, detention, or punishment of any kind because of their political activities in or outside the territory.

The General Assembly also called for the establishment by the Secretary-General of a special training program for South West Africans and the granting of all-expense scholarships by member states for South West Africans, with a view to preparing them for service in the administration of their country.

In May 1962, the Chairman and Vice-Chairman of the Special Committee for South West Africa, in response to an invitation of the South African Government, visited South and South West Africa. Reporting to the Committee on their discussions with representatives of the Government in Pretoria and their meetings with representative groups of the African, Colored, and European population in South

West Africa, the Chairman and Vice-Chairman stated that it was the overwhelming desire of the African population that the United Nations assume direct administration of the territory and take all preparatory steps to grant freedom to the indigenous population. The Chairman and Vice-Chairman concluded that there seemed no way of carrying out the tasks assigned to the Committee "short of the use of force or other compulsive measures within the purview of the Charter." They accordingly suggested that the Committee might wish to draw the attention of the Assembly to the need for continued firm action by giving South Africa a deadline within which to comply with the Assembly's resolutions, or, failing that, by considering the feasibility of revoking the mandate and simultaneously assuming the administration of the territory, if need be "by imposing sanctions or employing other means to enforce compliance with its decisions."

In its report to the Assembly, the Special Committee fully endorsed the conclusions and recommendations of its Chairman and Vice-Chairman.

The Assembly, on December 14, 1962, condemned South Africa's continued refusal to cooperate in the implementation of its resolutions. It decided to dissolve the Special Committee for South West Africa and assigned its functions to the Special Committee on the Situation with Regard to the Implementation of the Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples (*see page 386*). In addition, the Assembly requested the Secretary-General to appoint a United Nations technical assistance resident representative for South West Africa and to take all necessary steps to establish an effective United Nations presence in the territory.

THE SITUATION WITH REGARD TO THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE DECLARATION ON THE GRANTING OF INDEPENDENCE TO COLONIAL COUNTRIES AND PEOPLES

The General Assembly, in a resolution of December 14, 1960, proclaimed the necessity of bringing to a speedy and unconditional end colonialism in all its forms and manifestations. To this end, it adopted a Declaration on the granting of independence to colonial countries and peoples. The subjection of peoples to alien domination and exploitation, the Assembly declared, constituted a denial of fundamental human rights, is contrary to the Charter of the United Nations, and is an impediment to the promotion of world peace and cooperation. Inadequacy of political, economic, social, or educational prepared-

ness should never serve as a pretext for delaying independence. All armed action or repressive measures directed against dependent peoples should cease in order to enable them to exercise peacefully and freely their right to complete independence; the integrity of their national territory should be respected. In trust and non-self-governing territories or other territories which have not yet attained independence, immediate steps should be taken to transfer all powers to the peoples of those territories without any distinctions as to race, creed, or color.

Implementation of the Declaration

In August, 1961, the Soviet Union requested the inclusion in the agenda of the sixteenth session of the Assembly of an item entitled "The situation with regard to the implementation of the Declaration on the granting of independence to colonial countries and peoples." An explanatory memorandum stated that the Declaration remained unfulfilled and called on the Assembly to elaborate practical measures for giving immediate effect to it, to set a target date for its implementation, and to provide for measures of supervision and control by the United Nations.

On November 27 the Assembly adopted a resolution, sponsored by thirty-eight African and Asian states, which noted with regret that, with a few exceptions, the provisions of the Declaration had not been carried out and that armed action and repressive measures continued to be taken in certain areas "with increasing ruthlessness" against dependent peoples, depriving them of their prerogative to exercise peacefully and freely their right to complete independence.

Committee of Seventeen Established

The Assembly called on all states concerned to "take action without further delay with a view to the faithful application and implementation of the Declaration". It established a special committee of seventeen members to study the application of the Declaration and to make suggestions and recommendations on the progress and extent of its application. The Committee was authorized to meet outside United Nations Headquarters "whenever and wherever such meetings may be required for the effective discharge of its functions in consultation with the appropriate authorities".

The Committee consisted of the following seventeen member states, nominated by the President of the General Assembly: Australia, Cambodia, Ethiopia, India, Italy, Madagascar, Mali, Poland, Syria, Tanganyika, Tunisia, the USSR, the United Kingdom, the United States, Uruguay, Venezuela, and Yugoslavia.

The Special Committee held 117 meetings from February to

September 1962, at which it heard statements by petitioners, including the representatives of political parties of the territories concerned, and others. In response to invitations by the Governments of Morocco, Ethiopia and Tanganyika, meetings were held in Tangier, Addis Ababa and Dar-es-Salaam.

In its examination of the application of the Declaration in respect of territories which had not yet attained independence the Committee decided to give priority to territories in Africa. During its meetings the Committee considered the following territories: Southern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia, Nyasaland, Basutoland, Bechuanaland and Swaziland, Zanzibar, Mozambique, British Guiana, South West Africa, Kenya, and Angola.

In its report dated September 20, 1962, to the seventeenth session of the General Assembly, the Committee gave a full account of its work, stating, among other things, that "through its observations and recommendations on each of the territories", it had "provided the administering powers with specific lines of action, based on the Declaration itself and the basic objectives of the Charter of the United Nations, which will materially assist in hastening the end of colonial rule in the territories concerned".

Assembly Action at its Seventeenth Session

On December 17, 1962, the Assembly, after considering the report of the Special Committee, adopted a resolution which expressed appreciation for the work of the Committee and reaffirmed the objectives and principles enshrined in the Declaration. The Assembly deplored the refusal of certain administering powers to cooperate in the implementation of the Declaration in territories under their administration, and called on the powers concerned to cease forthwith all armed action and repressive measures directed against peoples who had not yet attained their independence, and particularly against the political activities of their rightful leaders. It urged all administering powers to take immediate steps in order that all colonial territories and peoples might accede to independence without delay in accordance with the provisions of paragraph 5 of the Declaration.

Also under the resolution of December 17, the Assembly decided to enlarge the membership of the Special Committee by the addition of seven new members to be nominated by the President of the Assembly. It invited the enlarged Committee: (a) to continue to seek the most suitable ways for the speedy and total application of the Declaration to all territories which had not yet attained independence; (b) to propose specific measures for the complete application of the Declaration; (c) to submit to the Assembly in due course, and not later than its eighteenth session, a full report containing its suggestions

and recommendations on all the territories which have not yet attained independence; and (d) to apprise the Security Council of any developments in these territories which may threaten international peace and security.

The Assembly requested all member states, and especially the administering powers, to afford the Special Committee, which would now number twenty-four, their fullest cooperation.

Work of the Committee and Assembly Consideration

Some of the Committee's observations, recommendations, and conclusions concerning these territories, as well as an account of Assembly action on them, follow:

Southern Rhodesia

The General Assembly on February 23, 1962, at its sixteenth session, requested the Committee of Seventeen to consider whether Southern Rhodesia had attained a full measure of self-government and to report on the matter to the Assembly's seventeenth session. Prior to this Assembly action, the United Kingdom representative had stated that the United Nations had no authority to intervene in the affairs of Southern Rhodesia and he formally recorded the objection of his Government to any resolution that might be adopted. The constitutional position was that since 1923 his Government had had no effective power to legislate for Southern Rhodesian internal affairs and could not now intervene without the consent of the Government of Southern Rhodesia. His Government could not transmit information to the United Nations because it did not have the constitutional power or right to require the Government of Southern Rhodesia to provide the United Kingdom with information.

On March 7 the Special Committee began consideration of the question of Southern Rhodesia and on March 29 established a Sub-Committee on Southern Rhodesia, which was asked to pursue the question with the United Kingdom Government. In its report to the Special Committee, after meetings held in London between April 7 to 14, the Sub-Committee stated that in London it had stressed the gravity of the situation in Southern Rhodesia, the lack of wisdom in transferring power to a "minority government of settlers", and the danger of conflict and upheaval if a constitution were forced on the territory in the face of total opposition of the African population. It considered that, whatever the pattern of the relationship between the Government of Southern Rhodesia and the Government of the United Kingdom, it could not affect the international character and status of the territory in the eyes of the United Nations. The Sub-Committee

felt that the situation should be considered by the second part of the resumed session, or at a special session, of the sixteenth Assembly "as a matter of urgency".

The Special Committee, on May 11, affirmed that the territory of Southern Rhodesia is a non-self-governing territory, and endorsed the conclusions of the Sub-Committee; recommended in accordance with the Sub-Committee's report that, in the absence of favorable developments, the situation in Southern Rhodesia should be considered by the General Assembly at its resumed sixteenth session or at a special session, as a matter of urgency. It also recommended for the consideration of the Assembly a draft resolution which requested the administering power to take immediate steps to set aside the 1961 constitution and to call a fresh conference in which there would be full participation of representatives of African political parties to formulate a new constitution.

The question was inscribed on the agenda and, after ten days of debate the Assembly adopted, on June 28, a resolution sponsored by thirty-eight Asian and African delegations, noting with regret that the United Kingdom had not yet taken steps to transfer all powers to the people of Southern Rhodesia as required by the Declaration on the granting of independence. The Assembly affirmed that the territory of Southern Rhodesia is a non-self-governing territory and asked the United Kingdom: (1) to convene "urgently" a constitutional conference charged with drawing up a new constitution for the territory to replace that of December 1961; the conference should include "full participation of representatives of all political parties," and the new constitution should "ensure the rights of the majority of the people, on the basis of 'one man, one vote;'" (2) to take "immediate steps" to restore all rights of the non-European population and to remove all "restraints and restrictions" in law and in practice on the exercise of freedom of political activity, including all laws which "directly or indirectly sanction . . . racial discrimination;" and (3) to grant amnesty to all political prisoners and ensure their immediate release. Finally, the Assembly asked the Special Committee "to continue its constructive efforts" toward the earliest implementation of the Declaration in order to ensure Southern Rhodesia's emergence into an independent African state.

Four months later, early in the seventeenth session of the General Assembly, on September 24, the Assembly allocated the item, "Question of Southern Rhodesia" to the Fourth Committee which, during October, heard statements by thirteen petitioners. On October 12, a resolution was adopted stating that the Assembly was "deeply concerned at the deplorable, critical and explosive situation obtaining in Southern Rhodesia as a result of the state of emergency . . . a situation which constitutes a denial of political rights and endangers peace and security in Africa and in the world at large." The Assembly

urged the United Kingdom Government to take measures "for the immediate and unconditional release of the President of the Zimbabwe African Peoples Union . . . and all other national leaders, restricted, detained or imprisoned;" and for the immediate lifting of the ban on the Union. It also requested the United Kingdom Government to inform the seventeenth session on the implementation of the resolution.

On October 31, the Assembly adopted another resolution requesting the United Kingdom to take the necessary measures to secure the immediate suspension of the constitution for Southern Rhodesia, the cancellation of scheduled general elections, the convening of a conference to formulate a new constitution, and the extension to the whole population of the right to exercise their basic political rights, in particular the right to vote. The resolution also asked the Acting Secretary-General "to lend his good offices to promote conciliation" among the various sections of the populations of Southern Rhodesia.

On December 19 the Secretary-General reported that in an exchange of communications with the United Kingdom Government, that Government had stated that it had not yet discussed matters of common concern with the new Southern Rhodesian ministers.

Northern Rhodesia

The Special Committee of Seventeen took up the consideration of the question of Northern Rhodesia on April 17, 1962, and during its meetings in the following three months heard statements by seven petitioners. A sub-committee appointed on May 4 was asked to draft the conclusions and recommendations on the territory.

On May 16, the Special Committee, acting on the report of the sub-committee, recommended that the General Assembly conclude that the new constitution did not conform to the principles embodied in paragraph 5 of the Declaration on the granting of independence, particularly in respect of the franchise qualifications which were discriminatory since they excluded the vast majority of the indigenous people; that the governmental powers were wielded by a small minority to the detriment of the rights and interests of the overwhelming indigenous majority; that the inclusion of Northern Rhodesia in the Federation was contrary to the wishes of the indigenous people who form the overwhelming majority; and that the question of entering into a federation, or relationship of any kind with other countries, could be decided only by the people and representative bodies of Northern Rhodesia. Under the draft resolution, the Assembly would also request the Government of the United Kingdom to take immediate steps to apply the provisions of the Declaration and to repeal all legislation which directly or indirectly sanctioned any policy or practice based on racial discrimination. The Assembly would urge the Government of the United Kingdom to

carry out certain conditions as a prerequisite for the forthcoming legislative elections in Northern Rhodesia.

At the seventeenth session of the General Assembly, before the Special Committee's proposed draft resolution came to a vote, the representative of the United Kingdom stated that since the adoption of that draft resolution by the Committee a coalition government had been formed in Northern Rhodesia, and ministers had been appointed. He said that the proposal was therefore out of date and he suggested that it would be wiser not to proceed to a vote on the subject, a suggestion which was adopted by the Assembly.

Basutoland, Bechuanaland, and Swaziland

The Special Committee began its consideration of these three territories on May 15, 1962. It heard three groups of petitioners, and later in Africa in June, established a working group to prepare draft conclusions and recommendations on the territories.

A draft resolution submitted by the working group was adopted by the Special Committee, which in turn submitted it to the General Assembly at its seventeenth session. The Assembly on December 18 adopted this resolution which reaffirmed the right of the peoples of the three territories to independence; invited the United Kingdom to suspend the constitution and hold elections without delay on the basis of universal adult suffrage, and further, to abrogate the constitution and convene immediately a constitutional conference to set an independence date for each territory; considered that serious efforts should be made to provide United Nations economic, financial, and technical assistance; urged the United Kingdom to take immediate steps to return all the land taken from the indigenous inhabitants; and declared that any attempt to annex any of the three territories or encroach on their territorial integrity would be regarded by the United Nations as an act of aggression in violation of the Charter.

Nyasaland

The Special Committee, in meetings during May and June in Africa, considered the question of Nyasaland and set up a working group to prepare draft conclusions and recommendations for the Committee's attention. The Committee adopted these conclusions and recommendations which noted that "at the Constitutional Conference held in 1960, the basic demand of the political parties in Nyasaland was, and still is, immediate accession to independence", and that they had accepted the present constitution only as an interim and compromise measure. The Committee also noted with regret that the administering power had not yet taken steps to transfer all powers to the people of Nyasaland; welcomed the decision to hold talks be-

tween the leaders of Nyasaland and the United Kingdom Government in June or early July on constitutional advancement; and expressed the hope that these talks would lead to the establishment of the date of independence for Nyasaland.

On December 18, 1962, the General Assembly adopted a resolution which noted the Committee's conclusions and recommendations, but also expressed satisfaction that, at the constitutional talks held in London in November, agreement was reached on a new constitution for Nyasaland.

Zanzibar

In the course of the Special Committee's meetings in Africa it heard a number of petitioners' statements concerning Zanzibar. Among the points raised by these petitioners were those of the release of political prisoners and the ending of the state of emergency in the territory. Without prejudice to any subsequent recommendations and decisions which it might make concerning this territory, the Committee on June 8, 1962 appealed to the administering power to release all political prisoners in Zanzibar and to end the state of emergency in the territory.

On July 9, at Headquarters, the Committee again took up the question of Zanzibar. The representative of the United Kingdom reaffirmed the determination of his Government to work for full and complete independence for Zanzibar by the restoration of order, the reduction of tension and, if possible, by reconciliation among all concerned. He then noted that at the last elections, held on June 1, 1961, a close balance had resulted between the two main parties, and it was this balance that had created a major obstacle to political advancement. He also said that discussions had been held in September 1961 in Zanzibar and later in London, on constitutional questions and the possibility of forming a coalition government, but despite prolonged discussions between the parties concerned, agreement could not be reached. Therefore, the British Government had been unable to set dates, for the present, either for internal self-government or for the independence of Zanzibar.

At the end of the general discussion, the Committee accepted a proposal by the representative of Ethiopia that further consideration of Zanzibar should be postponed to enable the leaders of the political parties of Zanzibar to reconcile their differences and to arrive at an agreed solution. In case they did not succeed, the Committee would resume consideration of the question in September.

On September 11, the Committee adopted a resolution recommending that the Assembly request the United Kingdom to make every effort to bring Zanzibar to independence at the earliest possible

date. On December 17, the Assembly adopted the proposed draft resolution of the Committee, appealing to the people of Zanzibar to achieve national unity, and requesting the United Kingdom to promote harmony and unity and ensure Zanzibar's independence as soon as possible.

Kenya

The Special Committee considered Kenya during its meetings in May, June, August, and September, 1962, in the course of which it heard statements from three petitioners.

The Special Committee was informed of the agreement reached at the constitutional conference of February 1962 and of the formation of a coalition government in preparation for the introduction of a new constitution and for the holding of elections. On September 18, the Special Committee adopted, without a vote, a draft resolution for the consideration of the General Assembly which would have the Assembly urge the Government of the United Kingdom to make all efforts for the holding of national elections without further delay on the basis of universal adult suffrage. Further, it would request the administering power and all concerned to make all efforts to bring Kenya into independence at the earliest date in accordance with the Declaration on the granting of independence.

The Assembly, in a resolution of December 17, requested the administering power and all concerned to make every effort, including the promotion of harmony and unity among the people of Kenya, to bring the territory to independence at the earliest date in accordance with the Declaration on the granting of independence. It also expressed the hope that Kenya would become an independent and sovereign state and join the community of nations in the shortest possible time.

British Guiana

In December 1961, the Fourth (Trusteeship) Committee of the General Assembly, considered a draft resolution dealing, *inter alia*, with an independence date for British Guiana. On February 22, 1962 the United Kingdom Government informed the Committee that a constitutional conference was to be held in May 1962, and the date and arrangements for independence would be made at that time. With this information, the Committee concluded its consideration of British Guiana at the sixteenth session.

In July 1962, the Special Committee of Seventeen heard petitioners from the territory, including Dr. Cheddi Jagan, the Premier, and adopted a resolution requesting resumption "immediately" of nego-

tiations between the Governments of the United Kingdom and British Guiana with a view to reaching agreement on the date of independence for British Guiana in accordance with the wishes of the people.

Mozambique

The Special Committee of Seventeen considered the question of Mozambique during June, July, and August of 1962 at meetings in Africa and New York at which five petitioners were heard. On August 10, a resolution was adopted which would have the Assembly reaffirm the right of the people of Mozambique to self-determination and independence and support their demand for immediate independence. It would also have the Assembly call on Portugal to desist forthwith from armed action and repressive measures against the people of Mozambique, request member states to deny Portugal any assistance that might be used for the suppression of the people of Mozambique, and "in particular, to terminate the supply of arms to Portugal." Finally, the resolution would have the Assembly request the Security Council, "in the event of Portugal's refusal to implement this and the previous resolutions of the General Assembly, to take appropriate measures, including sanctions if necessary, to secure Portugal's compliance with this resolution."

The Assembly, at its seventeenth session, decided not to vote on the Committee's draft resolution, in view of earlier Assembly action on the Portuguese territories (*see page 368*).

Angola

The question of Angola was considered at two meetings in September 1962 by the Special Committee, which also, at this time, had before it the Report of the Special Committee on Territories under Portuguese Administration. A draft resolution was drawn up for consideration by the General Assembly at its seventeenth session. The resolution recommended that the Assembly condemn the colonial war pursued by Portugal against the Angolan people, support the demand of the Angolan people for immediate independence, call on the Portuguese authorities again to desist forthwith from armed action and repressive measures and request all member states to deny Portugal any support or assistance which it might use for the suppression of the Angolan people, and in particular, to terminate the supply of arms to Portugal. In addition, the resolution requested the Security Council in the event of Portugal's continuing refusal to implement this and the previous resolutions of the General Assembly and the Security Council, to take appropriate measures, including sanctions, to secure Portugal's compliance with this resolution.

At its seventeenth session, the Assembly took into account these

recommendations when it adopted a resolution on Angola under a separate agenda item—the report of the Sub-Committee on Angola (*see page 366*).

Other Committee Work

In addition to examining the implementation of the Declaration on the Granting of Independence in twelve territories, the Special Committee also heard two groups of petitioners concerning Singapore and one petitioner concerning Aden.

LEGAL QUESTIONS

International Court of Justice

The composition of the International Court of Justice, the nature and extent of its jurisdiction, and the law it applies, as provided for in the United Nations Charter and the Statute of the International Court of Justice, are described in Part One of this volume. There, also, the names of the members of the Court—its fifteen judges—are given.

Contentious Cases Dealt with by the Court since 1946

CORFU CHANNEL CASE

This dispute—the first to be considered by the Court—gave rise to three judgments by the Court. The dispute arose out of the explosion of mines in 1946 which caused loss of life and damage to British warships while they were passing through the Corfu Channel in Albanian waters which had been previously swept. The United Kingdom accused Albania of having laid, or having allowed a third party to lay, the mines after mine-clearance operations had been carried out by the Allied naval authorities. The case was brought before the United Nations and, on the recommendation of the Security Council, was referred to the International Court.

The first of three judgments, on March 25, 1948, dealt with the question of the Court's jurisdiction, which Albania had challenged. The Court rejected Albania's objection on the ground, among others, that the Albanian Government had sent a letter to the Court which constituted a voluntary and indisputable acceptance of the Court's jurisdiction and that reservations stated in that letter were intended only to maintain a principle and prevent the establishment of a precedent.

The second judgment, on April 9, 1949, related to the merits of the problem. The Court found that Albania was responsible under international law for the explosion and for the resulting damage and

loss of life. Although it did not accept the view that Albania itself had laid the mines, it did hold that the mines could not have been laid without the knowledge of the Albanian Government. Albania, for its part, had submitted a counterclaim against the United Kingdom, whom it accused of having violated Albanian sovereignty by sending warships into Albanian territorial waters and of carrying out mine-sweeping operations in these waters after the explosions. The Court did not accept the first of these complaints. It found that this was a case of innocent passage. On the other hand, since the mine-clearance operation of November 12 and 13, 1946, had been effected against the will of the Albanian Government, the Court found that it constituted an inadmissible intervention in the affairs of Albania. The action of the British Navy, the Court held, was a violation of Albanian sovereignty.

In a third and final judgment, on December 15, 1949, the Court assessed the amount of reparation to be paid by Albania to the United Kingdom. This amount had been determined as a result of an expert inquiry, and Albania was ordered to pay the United Kingdom a total of approximately \$2.4 million for the damage caused to the ships and as compensation for the deaths of members of the crews and for personal injuries suffered by them. Albania, to date, has not paid the compensation due the United Kingdom, and the latter Government has not sought recourse to the Security Council, according to Article 94 of the Charter.

(The United Kingdom, however, in the case of the monetary gold removed from Rome in 1943—brought before the Court by Italy (*see page 404*)—asked the Court to rule that the gold be delivered to the United Kingdom in partial satisfaction of the Court's judgment of December 15, 1949.)

ANGLO-NORWEGIAN FISHERIES CASE

In 1935 Norway enacted a decree by which it reserved certain fishing grounds situated off the northern coast of Norway for the exclusive use of its own fishermen. On September 28, 1949, the United Kingdom submitted an application claiming that the 1935 decree closed considerable areas off the Norwegian coast which, under international law, were high seas, open to the fishing vessels of all nations. The United Kingdom asked the Court to lay down the principles of international law to be applied in defining and, in so far as was necessary, to define the limits within which Norway was entitled to reserve a fisheries zone. It also asked for damages for all interference with United Kingdom shipping vessels by Norway outside these limits.

On December 18, 1951, the Court, by a vote of 10 to 2, found that the method used by Norway in the decree for the delimitation of the zones was not contrary to international law, and by 8 to 4,

decided that the base lines themselves had been fixed by a method not contrary to international law.

CASE CONCERNING THE PROTECTION OF FRENCH
NATIONALS AND PROTECTED PERSONS IN EGYPT

As a consequence of certain measures adopted by the Egyptian Government against the property and persons of various French nationals and protected persons in Egypt, France instituted proceedings in which it invoked the Montreux Convention of 1935 concerning the abrogation of capitulations in Egypt. The case was filed on October 13, 1949. On February 21, 1950, however, the French Government informed the Court that the measures taken by Egypt had since been withdrawn, and that the case was virtually settled. No objection was made to the withdrawal of the case by Egypt; it was therefore ordered removed from the Court's list on March 29, 1950.

COLOMBIAN-PERUVIAN ASYLUM CASE

The granting of asylum in the Colombian Embassy at Lima on January 3, 1949, to a Peruvian national, Haya de la Torre, a political leader accused of having instigated a military rebellion, was the subject of a dispute between Peru and Colombia which, on October 15, 1949, the parties agreed to submit to the Court. The Colombian Ambassador had asked the Peruvian Government for guarantees of safe conduct to enable Haya de la Torre to leave the country, subsequently stating that Haya de la Torre had been "qualified" as a political refugee. The Peruvian Government had disputed Colombia's right of unilateral and definite "qualification" and had refused to grant a safe conduct.

In its judgment of November 20, 1950, the Court held that Colombia, as the state granting asylum, was not competent to qualify the offence by a unilateral and definitive decision binding on Peru. As for Colombia's submission that Peru was obligated to issue a safe conduct to enable a refugee to leave the country, the Court found that the guarantees provided for refugees in the Havana Convention were applicable solely to a case where a territorial state, in this case Peru, demanded the departure of the refugee from its territory, which was not the position here.

In a counter-claim, Peru had asked the Court to declare that the asylum granted by the Colombian Embassy violated the Havana Convention, first, because Haya de la Torre was accused of a common crime, and second, because the urgency required under the Convention to justify asylum was not present in this case. The Court rejected the first point on the grounds that the charge of military rebellion was not a common crime. On the second point, the Court declared

that since three months had elapsed between the military rebellion and the grant of asylum, there was indeed no case for urgency.

On the same day as the Court delivered the judgment, Colombia filed a request for an interpretation, in which it sought to obtain from the Court a reply to the question of whether the judgment implied an obligation binding the Colombian authorities to surrender the refugee to the Peruvian authorities. In a judgment delivered on November 27, 1950, the Court declared that the questions raised by Colombia were new questions that had not been presented in the preceding case therefore the Court could not decide upon them by way of interpretation. A request for interpretation, the Court pointed out, could be founded only on a dispute between the parties concerning the meaning of the judgment; such a dispute could not have arisen since the request for interpretation had been submitted on the same day as the judgment was delivered. Colombia's request was therefore dismissed.

HAYA DE LA TORRE CASE

This case, a sequel to the earlier proceedings, was instituted by Colombia by means of a fresh application. Immediately after the judgment of November 20, 1950, Peru had called upon Colombia to surrender Haya de la Torre. Colombia had refused to do so, maintaining that neither the applicable legal provisions nor the Court's judgment placed it under an obligation to surrender the refugee to the Peruvian authorities. The Court confirmed this view in its judgment of June 13, 1951. It declared that the question was a new one and that, although the Havana Convention expressly prescribed the surrender of common criminals to the local authorities, no obligation of the kind existed in regard to political offenders. While confirming that asylum had been irregularly granted and, on this ground, Peru was entitled to demand its termination, the Court declared that Colombia was not bound to surrender the refugee; these two conclusions, it stated, were not contradictory because there were other ways in which the asylum could be terminated besides the surrender of the refugee.

The Court accordingly declared unanimously that it was not part of its judicial function to make a choice among the different ways in which asylum might be brought to an end; it declared that Colombia was under no obligation to surrender Haya de la Torre to the Peruvian authorities; it declared unanimously that the asylum ought to have ceased after the delivery of the judgment of November 20, 1950, and should terminate.

(Note—At the tenth International Conference of American States, held at Caracas, Venezuela, in March 1954, it was announced

that an agreement between Colombia and Peru had been signed at Bogota by which Haya de la Torre would be given safe conduct out of Peru. Haya de la Torre left Lima on April 16, 1954, and arrived in Mexico City the next day. He subsequently returned to Peru.)

CASE CONCERNING RIGHTS

OF UNITED STATES NATIONALS IN MOROCCO

On October 28, 1950, the Government of the French Republic instituted proceedings before the International Court against the Government of the United States and asked the Court to declare that United States nationals in Morocco were not entitled to preferential treatment, and should be subject to the laws and regulations in force within the Shereefian Empire, in particular those relating to imports not involving an official allocation of currency.

The United States argued that discrimination in favor of French imports was a direct violation of the treaty rights of the United States which grant its nationals immunity from local laws and forbid prohibitions on United States imports. By applying the decree to United States citizens, the United States contended, France was guilty of a violation of international law.

The arguments on both sides found common ground in the Act of Algeciras of 1906, proclaiming in French Morocco respect for "economic liberty without any inequality." This Act had been unaffected six years later by the establishment of the French Protectorate over Morocco in which France was accorded no privileged economic position in Morocco.

The Court, in its judgment handed down on August 27, 1952, held unanimously that the provisions of the Residential decree of December 30, 1948, contravened the rights which the United States had acquired under the Act of Algeciras, because they exempted France from control of imports without allocation of currency, while subjecting the United States to such control.

The Court considered the extent of the consular jurisdiction of the United States in Morocco and held that the United States was entitled to exercise such jurisdiction in the French zone in all disputes, civil or criminal, between United States citizens or persons protected by the United States. It was also entitled to exercise such jurisdiction to the extent required by the relevant provisions of the Act of Algeciras. The Court rejected the contention of the United States that its consular jurisdiction included cases in which only the defendant was a citizen or protégé of the United States. It also rejected the claim by the United States that the application to citizens of the United States of laws and regulations in the French zone of Morocco required the assent of the United States Government. Such

assent was required only in so far as intervention of the consular courts of the United States was necessary for the effective enforcement of such laws or regulations as against United States citizens.

The Court rejected a counterclaim by the United States that its nationals in Morocco were entitled to immunity from taxation. It also dealt with the question of the valuation of imports by the Moroccan customs authorities.

AMBATIELOS CASE

N. E. Ambatielos, a Greek shipowner, in 1919 entered into a contract with the Government of the United Kingdom for the purchase of ships. Ambatielos later claimed he had suffered damage through the failure of the United Kingdom Government to carry out the terms of the contract and as a result of certain judgments given against him by the English courts in circumstances which were alleged to be contrary to international law. In 1951 the Greek Government took up the case of its national and claimed that the United Kingdom was under a duty to submit the dispute to arbitration, in accordance with the treaties of 1886 and 1926 between the United Kingdom and Greece. The United Kingdom objected to the Court's jurisdiction.

In a judgment of July 1, 1952, the Court held that it had jurisdiction to decide whether the United Kingdom was under a duty to submit to arbitration but, on the other hand, that it had no jurisdiction to deal with the merits of the Ambatielos claim.

In a further judgment of May 19, 1953, the Court decided that the dispute was one in which the United Kingdom was under an obligation to submit to arbitration in accordance with the treaties of 1886 and 1926.

(The case was later submitted to arbitration. By a decision of March 6, 1956, an arbitral commission found that the Ambatielos claim was not valid having regard to the provisions of the treaty of 1886.)

ANGLO-IRANIAN OIL COMPANY CASE

On May 26, 1951, the United Kingdom filed an application with the Court instituting proceedings on the differences between the Government of Iran and the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company. These arose from the Iranian Nationalization Act of May 1, 1951, which had the effect of confiscating the properties of the company.

The United Kingdom asked the Court to declare that the Iranian Government was bound to submit the dispute to arbitration under the terms of the 1933 Convention between Persia (as Iran was then called) and the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, and to accept and carry out the arbitral award.

Alternatively, the United Kingdom asked the Court to declare that implementing the Nationalization Act would be contrary to international law, in so far as it unilaterally annulled or altered the terms of the Convention. Moreover, the application asked the Court:

to declare that the Convention continued to be legally binding on Iran, and that by denying the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company the exclusive legal remedy provided in the Convention, Iran had committed a denial of justice contrary to international law;

to declare that the Convention could not lawfully be annulled, or its terms altered, by Iran except by agreement with the Oil Company, or under the conditions of the Convention; and

to adjudge that the Government of Iran should give full satisfaction and indemnity for all acts committed in relation to the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company which were contrary to the agreement, and to determine the manner of such satisfaction and indemnity.

The application was immediately communicated to the Iranian Government.

On June 22, the United Kingdom made a request for indication of provisional measures of protection under Article 41 of the Statute of the Court. This article empowers the Court to indicate any provisional measures which ought to be taken to preserve the rights of the parties to a dispute, pending a final decision on the merits. Hearings began on this request on June 30.

Interim Measures Ordered. The Court ruled on July 5 that the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company should continue under the direction of its management as it was constituted prior to May 1, 1951, the date when Iran adopted the Nationalization Act. The direction of the Company was, however, to be subject to modification brought about by agreement with a Board of Supervision which, the Court decided, should be established by agreement between the Governments of Iran and the United Kingdom. The interim measures, however, were not put into effect (*see page 80*).

On July 22, 1952, the Court ruled that it lacked jurisdiction in the dispute and declared that the interim order, indicating measures of protection pending a final decision, ceased to be operative and the measures lapsed.

Basis of Jurisdiction. The judgment referred to the principle that the will of the parties was the basis of the Court's jurisdiction and noted that in the present case jurisdiction depended on declarations accepting the Court's compulsory jurisdiction made by Iran and the United Kingdom under Article 36, paragraph 2, of the Statute. These declarations contained the conditions of reciprocity, and as

Iran's declaration was more limited, it was on that declaration that the Court must base itself.

According to Iran's declaration, the Court had jurisdiction only when the dispute related to the application of a treaty or convention accepted by Iran. Iran maintained that, according to the actual wording, jurisdiction was limited to treaties subsequent to the declaration. The United Kingdom maintained that earlier treaties might also come into consideration.

In the view of the Court, both contentions might, strictly speaking, be compatible with the text but the Court could not base itself on a purely grammatical interpretation. It must seek an interpretation which was in harmony with a natural and reasonable reading of the text, having regard to the intention of Iran when it formulated its declaration. A natural and reasonable way of reading the text led to the conclusion that only treaties subsequent to ratification came into consideration. To reach an opposite conclusion, special and clearly established reasons would be required, but the United Kingdom was not able to produce them.

Iranian Declaration. On the contrary, it might be admitted that Iran had special reasons for drafting its declaration very restrictively and for excluding earlier treaties. For at that time Iran denounced all treaties relating to the regime of capitulations. Iran was uncertain about the legal effect of unilateral denunciation. In the circumstances, it was unlikely that Iran would be willing on its own initiative to agree to submit to the International Court disputes relating to all these treaties.

Moreover, the Iranian law provided decisive confirmation of the Iranian intention, for it stated that the treaties and conventions were those which "the Government will have accepted after ratification."

Earlier treaties were thus excluded by the declaration so that the United Kingdom could not rely on them. It invoked some subsequent treaties—those of 1934 with Denmark and Switzerland and of 1937 with Turkey—by which Iran undertook to treat the nationals of those powers in accordance with the principles and practice of ordinary international law.

The United Kingdom claimed that the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company was not treated in accordance with those principles and practices, and to rely on the above treaties, though concluded with third parties, found itself on the most-favored-nation clause in the two instruments it concluded with Iran, namely the treaty of 1857 and the commercial convention of 1903. But the two latter treaties which were the sole legal connection with the treaties of 1934 and 1937 were anterior to the declaration. The United Kingdom could not, therefore, rely on them; consequently, it could not invoke subsequent treaties by Iran with third states.

1933 Agreement. Did the settlement of disputes between Iran and the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company, effected in 1933 through the League of Nations, result in an agreement between the two Governments which they regarded as a treaty or convention?

The United Kingdom maintained it did. It claimed that the agreement of 1933 between Iran and the Company had a double character, being a concessionary contract and a treaty between two states. In the view of the Court, that was not the case. The United Kingdom was not a party to the contract. The contract did not constitute a link between the two Governments and did not regulate relations between them. Under the contract Iran could not claim from the United Kingdom any rights which it might claim from the Company, nor could it be called upon to perform toward the United Kingdom any obligation which it was bound to perform toward the Company. This juridical situation was unaltered by the fact that the concessionary contract was negotiated through the good offices of the Council of the League of Nations. The United Kingdom, in submitting its dispute with Iran to the League Council, was only exercising the right of diplomatic protection in favor of its national.

Thus the Court arrived at the conclusion that it was without jurisdiction.

MINQUIERS AND ECREHOS CASE

The Minquiers and Ecrehos are two groups of islets which lie between the British Channel Island of Jersey and the coast of France. Under a special agreement between France and the United Kingdom, the International Court, on December 6, 1951, was asked to determine which of the parties had sovereignty over these islets. The United Kingdom and France each submitted relevant documents in support of its claim to sovereignty.

In its judgment of November 17, 1953, the Court considered that none of the medieval treaties submitted stated specifically which islets were held by the King of England or by the King of France. Moreover, what was of decisive importance was not indirect presumptions based on matters in the Middle Ages, but direct evidence of possession and the actual exercise of sovereignty. After considering the evidence, the Court found that sovereignty over the Minquiers and Ecrehos belonged to the United Kingdom.

NOTTEBOHM CASE

In this case, submitted on December 17, 1951, Liechtenstein claimed restitution and compensation from the Government of Guatemala on the grounds that the latter had acted toward Friedrich Nottebohm, a citizen of Liechtenstein, in a manner contrary to international law.

Mr. Nottebohm, a German national, had settled in Guatemala in 1905 and continued to reside there. In October 1939, after the beginning of the Second World War and while on a visit to Europe, he obtained Liechtenstein nationality and in 1940 returned to Guatemala, where he resumed his former business activities until his removal in 1943 as a result of war measures.

Guatemala objected to the Court's jurisdiction, but the Court overruled this objection in a judgment on November 18, 1953.

In a second judgment of April 6, 1955, the Court held that it was the bond of nationality between a state and an individual which alone conferred upon the state the right to put forward an international claim on his behalf. The grant of nationality was entitled to recognition by other states only if it represented a genuine connection between the individual and the state granting its nationality. Mr. Nottebohm's nationality, however, was not based on any real prior connection with Liechtenstein, since he had retained his family and business connections with Germany and had been settled in Guatemala for thirty-four years. Moreover, the object of his naturalization was to enable him to acquire the status of a neutral in time of war.

For these reasons, the Court, by 11 votes to 3, held the claim of Liechtenstein to be inadmissible.

MONETARY GOLD CASE

By an application dated May 19, 1953, the Government of Italy instituted proceedings before the Court against France, the United Kingdom, and the United States concerning monetary gold removed from Rome in 1943. The gold, removed by the Germans, was later recovered in Germany and found to belong to Albania. The 1946 agreement on reparations from Germany provided that monetary gold found in Germany should be pooled for distribution among the countries entitled to receive a share of it. The United Kingdom claimed that the gold should be delivered to it in partial satisfaction of the Court's judgment of 1946 in the *Corfu Channel* case (*see page 395*). Italy claimed that the gold should be delivered to it in partial satisfaction for the damage which it alleged it had suffered as a result of an Albanian law of January 13, 1945.

In Washington, D.C., on April 25, 1951, the Governments of France, the United Kingdom, and the United States, to which implementation of the reparations agreement had been entrusted, decided that the gold should be delivered to the United Kingdom unless, within a certain time limit, Italy or Albania applied to the Court requesting it to adjudicate on their respective rights. Albania took no action in the matter, but within the prescribed time limit Italy made an application to the Court. Later, however, Italy raised

the preliminary question as to whether the Court had jurisdiction to adjudicate upon the validity of the Italian claim against Albania.

In its judgment of June 15, 1954, the Court decided that in order to decide whether Italy was entitled to receive the gold, it was necessary to determine whether Albania had committed an international wrong against Italy and was under an obligation to pay compensation to Italy. To go into the merits of such questions would be to decide a dispute between Italy and Albania which the Court had no jurisdiction to do without Albania's consent. For this reason the Court also could not decide the question of priority as between the claims of Italy and the United Kingdom, for this question could arise only if it was agreed that, as between Italy and Albania, the gold should go to Italy.

ELECTRICITÉ DE BEYROUTH COMPANY CASE

This case between France and Lebanon arose out of certain measures adopted by the Lebanese Government which the Electricité de Beyrouth Company, a French limited company, regarded as contrary to undertakings entered into by that Government. These undertakings, which related to concessions of French companies and companies with French capital in Lebanon, formed part of an agreement made between France and Lebanon in 1948.

After the case had been brought before the Court by France on August 11, 1953, the Lebanese Government and the Electricité de Beyrouth Company, on March 26, 1954, entered into an agreement for the settlement of the dispute by a repurchase of the concession. This agreement was ratified by the Lebanese Parliament on June 30. Moreover, it was agreed between the French and Lebanese Governments that as soon as a settlement was reached, France would discontinue the proceedings.

On July 23, 1954, therefore, the French Government informed the Court that it would not go on with the proceedings, and on July 29 the Court made an order for the removal of the case from the list.

TREATMENT IN HUNGARY OF AIRCRAFT AND CREW OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

On March 3, 1954, the Government of the United States instituted proceedings against Hungary and the USSR regarding an aircraft and crew of the United States which had been forced to land on Hungarian territory on November 19, 1951. In its applications, the United States requested the Court to consider the two cases and to deal with them together. Noting that the Governments of Hungary and of the USSR were qualified to accept the jurisdiction of the Court, the United States founded the jurisdiction of the Court on certain con-

siderations stated in the applications and on Article 36, paragraph 1, of the Statute.

In a letter to the Court dated April 30, 1954, the Government of the Soviet Union attributed responsibility for the incident to the United States and said it regarded as unacceptable the proposal of the United States Government that the Court should examine the case. In a letter to the Court dated June 14, the Hungarian Government stated that it was unable to submit to the Court's jurisdiction in the matter.

The Court found that in the circumstances it did not have jurisdiction to deal with these cases, and on July 12, 1954, it ordered them removed from the list.

AERIAL INCIDENT OF MARCH 10, 1953

On March 29, 1955, the United States instituted proceedings against Czechoslovakia concerning an aerial incident within the United States zone of occupation in Germany. In its application, the United States said that it submitted to the Court's jurisdiction for the purposes of the case and it was open to the Czechoslovak Government to do likewise. The United States Government relied on Article 36, paragraph 1, of the Court's Statute, which provides that the Court's jurisdiction comprises all cases which the parties refer to it.

In a letter to the Court, Czechoslovakia attributed responsibility for the incident to the United States and considered that there was no reason for the case to be dealt with by the Court.

The Court found that Czechoslovakia had not accepted its jurisdiction to deal with the dispute, and on March 14, 1956, it made an order removing the case from the list.

ANTARCTICA CASES

On May 4, 1955, the United Kingdom instituted proceedings before the Court against Argentina and Chile concerning disputes as to sovereignty over certain territories in the Antarctic. In its application, the United Kingdom stated that it submitted to the Court's jurisdiction for the purposes of the case and that, although as far as it was aware, Argentina and Chile had not yet accepted the Court's jurisdiction, they were legally qualified to do so. Moreover, the United Kingdom relied on Article 36, paragraph 1, of the Court's Statute, to the effect that the jurisdiction of the Court comprises all cases which the parties refer to it.

In a letter of July 15, 1955, the Government of Chile informed the Court that in its view the application of the United Kingdom was unfounded and it was not open to the Court to exercise jurisdiction. In a note of August 1 the Government of Argentina informed

the Court of its refusal to accept its jurisdiction to deal with the case.

In these circumstances, the Court found that neither Chile nor Argentina had accepted its jurisdiction, and on March 16, 1956, ordered the cases to be removed from the list.

AERIAL INCIDENT OF OCTOBER 7, 1952

On June 2, 1955, the United States instituted proceedings against the USSR on account of "certain willful acts committed by fighter aircraft of the Soviet Government against a United States Air Force B-29 aircraft and its crew off Hokkaido, Japan, on October 7, 1952." It requested the Court to find that the USSR was liable for damages caused in the sum of \$1,620,295. In its application to the Court, the United States Government stated that it submitted to the Court's jurisdiction for the purposes of the case and it was open to the Soviet Government to do likewise. The United States relied on Article 36, paragraph 1, of the Court's Statute, which provides that the jurisdiction of the Court comprises all cases which the parties refer to it.

In a letter to the Court, the Soviet Union attributed responsibility for the incident to the United States and considered that there was no reason for the question to be dealt with by the Court.

The Court found that the Soviet Union had not accepted its jurisdiction to deal with the dispute, and on March 14, 1956, ordered the case to be removed from the list.

CASE CONCERNING CERTAIN NORWEGIAN LOANS

Certain Norwegian loans were issued in France between the years 1885 and 1909, the bonds of the loans stating the amount of the obligation in gold or in currency convertible into gold, as well as in various national currencies. However, from the time when Norway suspended convertibility of its currency into gold, the loans were serviced in Norwegian kroner only. The French Government, espousing the cause of French bondholders, on July 16, 1955, filed an application requesting the Court to declare that the debt should be discharged by payment of the gold value of the coupons of the bonds on the date of payment and of the gold value of the redeemed bonds on the date of repayment.

The Norwegian Government raised a number of preliminary objections to the jurisdiction of the Court and, in the judgment it delivered on July 6, 1957, the Court found that it lacked jurisdiction to adjudicate on the dispute. Indeed, the Court held that, since its jurisdiction depended upon the two unilateral declarations made by the parties, jurisdiction was conferred upon the Court only to the extent to which those declarations coincided in conferring it. The Norwegian Government was therefore entitled, by virtue of the con-

dition of reciprocity, to invoke in its own favor the reservation contained in the French declaration, which excluded from the jurisdiction of the Court differences relating to matters essentially within the national jurisdiction as understood by the Government of the French Republic.

RIGHT OF PASSAGE OVER INDIAN TERRITORY

This dispute gave rise to two judgments by the Court.

The Portuguese possessions in India included, at some distance inland from the port of Daman, the two enclaves of Dadra and Nagar-Aveli, which in mid-1954 passed under an autonomous local administration. Portugal claimed: that it had a right of passage to those enclaves and between one enclave and the other to the extent necessary for the exercise of its sovereignty and subject to the regulation and control of India; that such right derived from agreements concluded in the eighteenth century between Portugal and the Marathas, from local customs established between Portugal and the successive sovereigns of the Indian peninsula, from general international custom in regard to enclaves, and from the general principles of law recognized by civilized nations; that in July 1954, contrary to the practice previously followed, the Indian Government had prevented Portugal from exercising the right of passage claimed by it and that that situation should be redressed.

The first judgment—that of November 26, 1957—related to the jurisdiction of the Court, which was challenged by India. The Court rejected four of the preliminary objections raised by India and joined the other two to the merits. In the second judgment—that of April 12, 1960—after rejecting the two remaining preliminary objections, the Court gave its decision on the claims of Portugal, which India maintained to be unfounded. After examining the situation of Dadra and Nagar-Aveli during the Maratha period and the practice subsequently developed in regard to those enclaves, the Court found that Portugal had in 1954 the right of passage claimed by it but that such right was limited to the passage of private persons, civil officials, and goods in general and did not extend to armed forces, armed police, arms, and ammunition. The Court found finally that India had not acted contrary to the obligations imposed on it by the existence of the right of passage thus found to belong to Portugal.

CASE CONCERNING THE APPLICATION OF THE CONVENTION OF 1902

GOVERNING THE GUARDIANSHIP OF INFANTS

The Swedish authorities in 1954 had placed an infant of Netherlands nationality residing in Sweden under the regime of protective up-

bringing instituted by Swedish law for the protection of children and young persons. The father of the child, jointly with a deputy guardian appointed by a Netherlands court, appealed against the action of the Swedish authorities, but the measure of protective upbringing was maintained. The Netherlands Government, on July 10, 1957, commenced proceedings in the Court against the Government of Sweden and claimed that the decisions which instituted and maintained the protective upbringing were not in conformity with Sweden's obligations under The Hague Convention of 1902 governing the guardianship of infants, the provisions of which were based on the principle that the national law of the infant was applicable.

In its judgment of November 28, 1958, the Court held that the 1902 Convention on guardianship did not include within its scope the matter of the protection of children as understood by the Swedish law on the protection of children and young persons and could not have given rise to obligations in a field outside the matter with which it was concerned. Accordingly, the Court did not in this case find any failure on the part of Sweden to observe the Convention.

INTERHANDEL CASE

The Société internationale pour participations industrielles et commerciales (Interhandel) was a limited company which had been registered in Switzerland, in 1928, on the initiative of I. G. Farbenindustrie of Frankfurt, Germany. Its most important assets consisted of its ownership of some 90 per cent of the shares of the General Aniline and Film Corporation (GAF), a company incorporated in the United States. In 1942 the Government of the United States seized the shares of GAF and vested them in the Office of Alien Property, taking the position that these shares were, in fact, the property of I. G. Farbenindustrie or were held for that enemy alien.

After the war the Swiss Government took up the claim of Interhandel for the return of the shares. Switzerland argued that the company's links with I. G. Farben had been severed in June 1940, and from that moment German control of the company had ceased. Therefore, in 1942, when the United States seized the shares of GAF, they were owned by a neutral, not an enemy alien.

Diplomatic negotiations having failed to result in restoration of the shares, the Swiss Government, in an application dated October 1, 1957, asked the Court to declare that the United States Government was under an obligation to restore to Interhandel the assets of that company which had been vested or, alternatively, that the dispute between Switzerland and the United States was one that was fit for submission for judicial settlement, arbitration, or conciliation. Two days later, the Swiss Government asked the Court to indicate, as an interim measure of protection, that the United States should not part

with these assets so long as proceedings in the dispute were pending and, in particular, should not sell the shares of GAF, which were claimed by the Federal Government of Switzerland as the property of its nationals.

On October 24, the Court made an order to the effect that, in the light of information furnished to the Court, it appeared that the sale of the shares in question could be effected only after the termination of judicial proceedings pending in the United States; that it was the stated intention of the United States Government not to take action at that time to fix a time schedule for the sale of the shares; and that accordingly there was no need to indicate interim measures of protection.

The United States raised preliminary objections to the jurisdiction of the Court. The Court itself, in its judgment of March 21, 1959, found that the application of the Government of Switzerland was inadmissible in regard both to the principal claim and to the alternative claim for the reason that Interhandel had not exhausted the local remedies available to it in the United States courts.

CASES CONCERNING THE AERIAL INCIDENT
OF JULY 27, 1955 (ISRAEL *v.* BULGARIA;
UNITED STATES *v.* BULGARIA;
UNITED KINGDOM *v.* BULGARIA)

These cases arose out of the destruction by Bulgarian anti-aircraft of an aircraft belonging to an Israel airline. Israel instituted proceedings before the Court by means of an application in October 1957. Bulgaria challenged the Court's jurisdiction to deal with the claim. Israel contended, however, that since Bulgaria had in 1921 accepted the compulsory jurisdiction of the Permanent Court of International Justice for an unlimited period, and since Bulgaria had been admitted to the United Nations in 1955, the jurisdiction of the present Court became applicable by virtue of Article 36, paragraph 5 of its Statute.

In its judgment on the preliminary objections, delivered on May 26, 1959, the Court found that it was without jurisdiction on the ground that Article 36, paragraph 5 was intended only to preserve declarations in force as between states signatories of the Charter, and not to revive undertakings which had lapsed on the dissolution of the Permanent Court.

On October 28 and November 22, 1957, respectively, the Governments of the United States and of the United Kingdom had filed separate applications with the Court in respect of the same aerial incident. Both Governments claimed damages for the death of their nationals who had been travelling in the aircraft and for the destruc-

tion of their property, and founded the jurisdiction of the Court on the acceptance of the compulsory jurisdiction of the Court by the states concerned.

Before the date fixed for the hearings of preliminary objections filed by Bulgaria on October 8, 1958, the United States Government informed the Court that, as a result of further considerations of questions of jurisdiction raised by Bulgaria in these objections, and the United States observations thereon, it had decided to request the discontinuance of the proceedings. The Bulgarian Government did not oppose such discontinuance and, on May 30, 1960, the Court directed that the case should be removed from the list.

The United Kingdom filed its memorial within the time limit fixed but, before the date set for the filing of the Bulgarian counter-memorial, the Government of the United Kingdom informed the Court of its decision to discontinue the proceedings, having regard to the decision of the Court of May 26, 1959, that it had no jurisdiction in respect of the case. The Bulgarian Government did not oppose discontinuance of the proceedings and, on August 3, 1959, the Court made an order removing the case from the list.

CASE CONCERNING SOVEREIGNTY OVER CERTAIN FRONTIER LAND

By a special agreement signed in March 1957 between the Netherlands and Belgium, the Court was asked to settle a dispute as to the sovereignty over certain parcels of land situated in an area north of the Belgian town of Turnhout, where the frontier between the two countries presents certain unusual features, there being a number of enclaves formed by the Belgian commune of Baerle-Duc and the Netherlands commune of Baarle-Nassau. From the documents produced by the parties it appeared that a Communal Minute drawn up by the authorities of these two communes between 1836 and 1841 (on which the Netherlands relied) attributed the two plots in question to Baarle-Nassau, whereas the Descriptive Minute of the frontier annexed to the Boundary Convention of 1843, which was concluded after the separation of Belgium from the Netherlands (on which Belgium relied), attributed them to Baerle-Duc, as did also the special map annexed to the Boundary Convention.

After considering all the evidence produced, the Court concluded that the Boundary Convention did determine to which state the various plots in each commune belonged and that no case of mistake had been made out and, finally, that the acts relied upon by the Netherlands as establishing its sovereignty were largely of a routine and administrative character and were insufficient to displace Belgian sovereignty established by the Boundary Convention. In its judgment

delivered on June 20, 1959, the Court accordingly found that sovereignty over the two disputed plots belonged to Belgium.

CASE CONCERNING THE ARBITRAL AWARD MADE
BY THE KING OF SPAIN ON DECEMBER 23, 1906

On July 1, 1958, the Government of Honduras commenced proceedings in the Court against the Government of Nicaragua in a dispute relating to the carrying out of an arbitral decision made on December 23, 1906, by the King of Spain. This decision related to the delimitation of certain portions of the boundary between Nicaragua and Honduras; and the latter country contended that the former had refused to give effect to the decision.

The application filed by Honduras based the jurisdiction of the Court on an agreement concluded at Washington on July 21, 1957, whereby the Foreign Ministers of Honduras and of Nicaragua consented to submit the dispute to the Court and defined the procedure to be followed in so doing. The application also referred to declarations by both Honduras and Nicaragua accepting the compulsory jurisdiction of the Court.

After considering all the evidence produced, the Court found that Nicaragua had in fact freely accepted the designation of the King of Spain as arbitrator, had fully participated in the arbitral proceeding, and had thereafter accepted the award. Consequently, the Court found in its judgment, delivered on November 18, 1960, that the award was binding and that Nicaragua was under an obligation to give effect to it.

CASE CONCERNING AERIAL INCIDENT
OF SEPTEMBER 4, 1954

On August 22, 1958, the Government of the United States instituted proceedings against the USSR on account of "certain willful acts committed by military aircraft of the Soviet Government on September 4, 1954, in the international air space over the Sea of Japan against a United States Navy P2-V-type aircraft, commonly known as a Neptune type, and against its crew." In its application, the United States stated that it submitted to the Court's jurisdiction for the purposes of the case and that the Soviet Government was qualified to do likewise. The United States relied on Article 36, paragraph 1, of the Court's Statute, which provides that the jurisdiction of the Court comprises all cases which the parties refer to it.

In a letter to the Court, the Soviet Union attributed responsibility for the incident to the United States and said it considered that in this case there were no questions which needed to be considered by

the Court and it saw no basis for turning this question over to the Court for examination.

In the circumstances, the Court found that it had not before it any acceptance by the Government of the Soviet Union of the jurisdiction of the Court to deal with the dispute and therefore it could take no further steps upon the application. The Court accordingly made an order on December 9, 1958, removing the case from the list.

CASE CONCERNING THE BARCELONA TRACTION,
LIGHT AND POWER COMPANY, LIMITED

On September 23, 1958, the Government of Belgium instituted proceedings against the Government of Spain in respect of a dispute concerning the Barcelona Traction, Light and Power Company, Limited. According to the Belgian application, certain administrative and judicial proceedings in Spain relating to Barcelona Traction, a company registered in Canada but operating largely in Spain, had resulted in a denial of justice to Belgian nationals who owned a very large part of the share capital of the company. The Belgian Government founded the jurisdiction of the Court, in its application, on the provisions of a Treaty of Conciliation, Judicial Settlement and Arbitration between Belgium and Spain which had come into force in 1928.

In May 1960 the Spanish Government filed preliminary objections to the jurisdiction of the Court, and the proceedings on the merits were suspended. Before a date had been set for hearings on the objections raised by Spain, the Belgian Government informed the Court that it would not go on with the proceedings. The Spanish Government indicated it had no objection to a discontinuance. Accordingly, on April 10, 1961, the Court made an order removing the case from the list.

Negotiations failed, however, to produce a settlement and on June 19, 1962, Belgium again submitted an application covering the same subject matter as its previous application. No other action was taken during 1962.

CASE CONCERNING THE COMPAGNIE DU PORT,
DES QUAIS ET DES ENTREPÔTS
DE BEYROUTH AND THE SOCIÉTÉ RADIO-ORIENT

This case between France and Lebanon arose out of certain measures adopted by the Lebanese Government with regard to two French limited companies, the Compagnie du Port, des Quais et des Entrepôts de Beyrouth and the Société Radio-Orient. The French Government considered these measures to be contrary to certain undertakings embodied in an agreement concluded between the two countries in 1948 relating to concessions of French companies and companies

with French capital in Lebanon. France instituted proceedings against Lebanon by means of an application on February 13, 1959.

Lebanon raised preliminary objections to the jurisdiction of the Court. However, before a date had been fixed for hearings on these objections, the Court was informed by the parties that satisfactory arrangements had been concluded. The situation concerning the Compagnie du Port had been settled by a convention of April 13, 1960, between Lebanon and the Compagnie—together with an exchange of letters between the President of the Council of Ministers of Lebanon and the Ambassador of the French Republic at Beirut—and that of the Société Radio-Orient had been fully satisfied by a decision of the Council of Ministers of Lebanon dated May 11, 1960. The President of the Court accordingly made an order on August 31 of that year removing the case from the list.

AERIAL INCIDENT OF NOVEMBER 7, 1954

On July 7, 1959, the United States instituted proceedings against the USSR on account of the destruction on November 7, 1954, of a United States Air Force B-29 aircraft in the Japanese territorial air space over Hokkaido, Japan. In its application, the United States Government stated that it submitted to the Court's jurisdiction for the purposes of the case and that the Soviet Government was qualified to do likewise. The United States relied on Article 36, paragraph 1, of the Court's Statute, which provides that the jurisdiction of the Court comprises all cases which the parties refer to it.

In a letter to the Court, the Soviet Union attributed responsibility for the incident to the United States and said it considered that in this case there were no questions which needed to be solved by the Court and it saw no basis for the filing of the case with the Court.

In these circumstances, the Court found that the Government of the Soviet Union had not accepted its jurisdiction to deal with the dispute. It therefore could take no further steps upon the application. The Court accordingly made an order on October 7, 1959, removing the case from the list.

CASE CONCERNING THE TEMPLE OF PREAH VIHEAR

In an application instituting proceedings against Thailand, filed on October 6, 1959, Cambodia complained that since 1949 Thailand had persisted in the occupation of a portion of Cambodian territory where there were the ruins of the Temple of Preah Vihear, a sacred place of pilgrimage and worship for the people of Cambodia. Cambodia asked the Court to declare that territorial sovereignty over the Temple belonged to the Kingdom of Cambodia and that Thailand was under

an obligation to withdraw the detachments of armed forces it had stationed since 1954 in the ruins of the Temple.

On May 23, 1960, the Government of Thailand filed preliminary objections to the jurisdiction of the Court, and the proceedings on the merits were suspended.

On May 26, 1961, the Court delivered a judgment in which it rejected the two preliminary objections raised by Thailand and upheld its jurisdiction.

In its judgment on the merits rendered on June 15, 1962, the Court found that the Temple of Preah Vihear was situated on Cambodian territory. It also held that Thailand was under an obligation to withdraw any military or police force, or other guards or keepers stationed in the Temple or in its vicinity on Cambodian territory. Finally, it ruled that Thailand was under an obligation to restore any sculptures or similar objects removed by it since it occupied the Temple in 1954.

CASES CONCERNING SOUTH WEST AFRICA

On November 4, 1960, Ethiopia and Liberia instituted proceedings against South Africa in a case concerning the continued existence of the mandate for South West Africa and the duties and performance of South Africa as mandatory power. The Court was requested to judge that South West Africa is a territory under mandate to South Africa and South Africa continues to have obligations thereunder, including those relating to the supervisory functions of the United Nations, and is obliged to render annual reports regarding the territory and to transmit petitions from the territory's inhabitants to the General Assembly.

Regarding the administration of South West Africa, the Court was asked to judge that South Africa has practiced *apartheid*; has failed to promote to the utmost the material and moral well-being and social progress of the inhabitants of the territory; has treated the territory in a manner inconsistent with its international status, thereby impeding opportunities for self-determination by the inhabitants of the territory; has established military bases within the territory; and has attempted to modify substantially the terms of the mandate without the consent of the United Nations.

The Court was asked to judge that these actions are in violation of South Africa's obligations under the mandate and that South Africa has the duty to cease such actions and to fulfill its obligations. Ethiopia and Liberia left it to the Court to judge whatever else it may deem fit and to make all necessary awards and orders, including an award of costs, to effectuate its determinations. Ethiopia and Liberia also reserved the right to request the Court to judge on events which might occur subsequent to the filing of their case.

On November 30, 1961, South Africa filed preliminary objections to the jurisdiction of the Court to hear the case brought against South Africa by Ethiopia and Liberia.

The Court held hearings on these preliminary objections in October 1962 and delivered a judgment on its jurisdiction on December 21, 1962. After rejecting the four preliminary objections raised by South Africa, the Court found, by 8 votes to 7, that it had jurisdiction to adjudicate upon the merits of the dispute brought before it by Ethiopia and Liberia. The Court has given South Africa until September 30, 1963, to reply to the allegations made by these two countries.

CASE CONCERNING THE NORTHERN CAMEROONS

On May 30, 1961, Cameroon instituted proceedings against the United Kingdom in a case concerning the Northern Cameroons. In its application Cameroon requested the Court to find that the United Kingdom had failed to respect certain obligations arising out of the trusteeship agreement for the territory of the Cameroons under British administration. It complained that the United Kingdom had incorrectly administered the Northern Cameroons as an integral part of Nigeria. It also complained that the provisions of General Assembly resolution 1473 (XIV) of December 12, 1959, relating to separation of the administration of the Northern Cameroons from Nigeria, had not been followed, and that the conduct of the local trusteeship authorities preceding the plebiscite by which the Northern Cameroons voted in favor of joining an independent Nigeria had been such as to alter the normal course of consultation and to involve consequences in conflict with the trusteeship agreement.

The United Kingdom raised a preliminary objection to the jurisdiction of the Court, and the proceedings on the merits were suspended.

The Court had not, as of the end of 1962, rendered its judgment in this case, nor on the objection raised by the United Kingdom.

Advisory Opinions Given by the Court since 1946

CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION OF A STATE TO MEMBERSHIP IN THE UNITED NATIONS

The General Assembly on November 17, 1947, requested the International Court to give an advisory opinion on whether a member of the United Nations was juridically entitled to make its consent to the admission of a new member dependent on conditions not expressly provided in the Charter—in particular, whether it could make its consent subject to the condition that other states be admitted at the same time.

In the interpretation given of Article 4 of the Charter in its advisory opinion of May 28, 1948, the Court declared that the conditions laid down for the admission of states were exhaustive and that if these conditions were fulfilled by a state which was a candidate, the Security Council ought to make the recommendation which would enable the General Assembly to decide upon the admission.

COMPETENCE OF THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY FOR THE ADMISSION OF A STATE TO THE UNITED NATIONS

The preceding opinion given by the Court did not lead to a settlement of the problem in the Security Council. A member of the United Nations then proposed that the word "recommendation" in Article 4 of the Charter should be construed as not necessarily signifying a favorable recommendation. In other words, a state might be admitted by the General Assembly even in the absence of a recommendation, this being interpreted as an unfavorable recommendation. This would, it was suggested, make it possible to escape the effects of the veto.

In the advisory opinion which the Court delivered on this subject on March 3, 1950, it pointed out that the Charter laid down two conditions for the admission of new members: a "recommendation" by the Security Council and a "decision" by the General Assembly. If the latter body had power to decide without a recommendation by the Security Council, the Council would be deprived of an important function assigned to it by the Charter. The absence of a recommendation by the Security Council, as the result of a veto, could not be interpreted as an "unfavorable" recommendation, since the Council itself had interpreted its own decision as meaning that no recommendation had been made.

REPARATION FOR INJURIES INCURRED IN THE SERVICE OF THE UNITED NATIONS

As a consequence of the assassination of Count Folke Bernadotte and of others serving the United Nations in Palestine, the Assembly on December 3, 1948, asked the Court whether the United Nations had the capacity to bring an international claim against the state responsible, with a view to obtaining reparation for damage caused to the Organization and to the victim. If this question were answered in the affirmative, it was further asked in what manner the action taken by the United Nations could be reconciled with such rights as might be possessed by the state of which the victim was a national.

In its opinion of April 11, 1949, the Court held that the Organization was intended to exercise functions and rights which could be explained only on the basis of the possession of a large measure of

international personality and the capacity to operate upon the international plane. It followed that the Organization had the capacity to bring a claim and to give it the character of an international action for reparation for the damage that had been caused to it. The Court further declared that the Organization could claim reparation not only in respect of damage caused to itself, but also in respect of damage suffered by the victim or persons entitled through him. Although, according to the traditional rule, diplomatic protection had to be exercised by the national state, the Organization should be regarded in international law as possessing the powers which, even if they are not expressly stated in the Charter, are conferred upon the Organization as being essential to the discharge of its functions. The Organization may be required to entrust its agents with important missions in disturbed parts of the world. In such cases, it is necessary that the agents should receive suitable support and protection.

The Court therefore found that the Organization has the capacity to claim appropriate reparation, including also reparation for damage suffered by the victim or by persons entitled through him. The risk of possible competition between the Organization and the victim's national state could be eliminated either by means of a general convention or by a particular agreement in any individual case.

INTERPRETATION OF PEACE TREATIES

WITH BULGARIA, HUNGARY, AND ROMANIA

In April 1949, the General Assembly had expressed "deep concern at the grave accusations made against the Governments of Bulgaria, Hungary and Romania regarding the suppression of human rights and fundamental freedoms in those countries" and had drawn the attention of these governments to their obligations under the peace treaties, including the obligation to cooperate in the settlement of all these questions.

In October 1949 the Assembly declared that the refusal of the three governments to cooperate in its efforts to examine the charges brought against them justified its "concern". Confronted by the charges of treaty violations made by certain powers against the three governments, particularly the charge that they had refused to designate their representatives to the treaty commissions for the settlement of disputes—a procedure prescribed in the peace treaties to deal with such disputes—the Assembly put four questions to the Court for an advisory opinion.

The Court was asked if a dispute existed between the three states and certain allied and associated powers in accordance with the provisions of the peace treaties. On March 30, 1950, the Court declared that a dispute did exist. To the further question whether, if a dispute

did exist, the three states were obligated to nominate their representatives to the treaty commissions, the Court gave an affirmative answer. It then set a time limit of thirty days for the three countries to comply with its opinion. On their failure to nominate their representatives within this limit, the Court, on July 18, 1950, answered the remaining two questions. It decided that the fact that the three countries had not complied with the Court's opinion did not authorize the Secretary-General to appoint the third member of each commission. In view of this, the Court declared, the answer to the fourth question—Will a commission of two members, one appointed by the Secretary-General, and the other by a party to the dispute, be competent to make a definite and binding decision?—was not necessary.

SOUTH WEST AFRICA: INTERNATIONAL STATUS;
VOTING PROCEDURE; ADMISSIBILITY OF HEARINGS
OF PETITIONERS

South West Africa, administered by South Africa, is the only League of Nations mandate which has not been placed under the international trusteeship system or, alternatively, given its independence. In 1949, owing to the refusal of South Africa to place the territory under trusteeship and its claim that it had no obligations to submit to United Nations supervision of its administration of South West Africa, the General Assembly requested the International Court to give an opinion concerning the status of the territory.

On July 11, 1950, the Court gave its opinion to the effect that the mandate remained in force and that South Africa was obliged to submit to United Nations supervision over the administration of the territory. It found, however, that South Africa was not under legal obligation to place the territory under trusteeship. South Africa continued to maintain that it had no obligation to submit to United Nations supervision, on the ground, among others, that it would no longer be protected by the unanimity principle of the League of Nations.

In 1954, the General Assembly agreed to take decisions on South West Africa by a two-thirds majority and asked the Court to advise whether this was in accordance with the Court's opinion of July 11, 1950.

In an advisory opinion handed down on June 7, 1955, the Court ruled in the affirmative.

In response to a further request from the General Assembly in 1955, the Court indicated in an advisory opinion of June 1, 1956, that the Assembly could legally authorize its Committee on South West Africa to grant hearings to petitioners.

RESERVATIONS TO GENOCIDE CONVENTION

In November 1950 the General Assembly asked the Court a series of questions as to the position of a state which attached reservations to its signature of the multilateral Convention on *The Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide* if other states, signatories of the same convention, objected to these reservations.

The Court considered, in its opinion of May 18, 1951, that even if a convention contained no article on the subject of reservations, it did not follow that they were prohibited. The character of the convention, its purpose, and its provisions must be taken into account. It was the compatibility of the reservation with the purpose of the convention which must furnish the criterion of the attitude of the state making the reservation, and of the state which objected thereto. The Court did not consider that it was possible to give an absolute answer to the abstract question put to it.

In regard to the effects of the reservation in relations between states, the Court considered that a state could not be bound by a reservation to which it had not consented. Every state was therefore free to decide for itself whether the state which formulated the reservation was or was not a party to the convention. The situation presented real disadvantages, but they could only be remedied by the insertion in the convention of an article on the use of reservations.

A third question referred to the effects of an objection by a state which was not yet a party to the convention, either because it had not signed it or because it had signed, but not ratified it. The Court was of the opinion that, as regards the first case, it would be inconceivable that a state which had not signed the convention should be able to exclude another state from it. In the second case, the situation was different; the objection was valid, but it would not produce an immediate legal effect; it would merely express and proclaim the attitude which a signatory state would assume when it had become a party to the convention. On all the foregoing points, the Court adjudicated only on the specific case referred to it, namely, the Genocide Convention.

EFFECT OF AWARDS OF COMPENSATION MADE

BY THE UNITED NATIONS ADMINISTRATIVE TRIBUNAL

The United Nations Administrative Tribunal was established by the General Assembly to hear applications alleging non-observance of contracts of employment of staff members of the Secretariat of the United Nations or of the terms of appointment of such staff members.

In its advisory opinion of July 13, 1954, the Court considered that the General Assembly of the United Nations was not entitled

on any grounds to refuse to give effect to an award of compensation made by the United Nations Administrative Tribunal in favor of a staff member of the United Nations whose contract of service had been terminated without his assent. The Tribunal was an independent and truly judicial body pronouncing final judgments without appeal within the limited field of its functions and not merely an advisory or subordinate organ. Its judgments were therefore binding on the United Nations and thus also on the General Assembly.

JUDGMENTS OF ADMINISTRATIVE TRIBUNAL OF
THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION (ILO)
UPON COMPLAINTS MADE AGAINST UNESCO
BY UNESCO PERSONNEL

The Statute of the Administrative Tribunal of ILO—the jurisdiction of which had been accepted by UNESCO for the purpose of settling certain disputes which might arise between it and its staff members—provided that the Tribunal's judgments should be final and without appeal, subject to the right of UNESCO to challenge them on the grounds, *inter alia*, that a decision of the Tribunal confirming its jurisdiction was wrong. The Statute further provided that, in the event of such a challenge, the question of the validity of the decision should be referred to the Court for an advisory opinion, which would be binding.

In a resolution of November 25, 1955, referring to four judgments of ILO's Administrative Tribunal on complaints of former UNESCO staff members, the UNESCO Executive Board put three questions to the Court.

UNESCO alleged that the four judgments given by the Tribunal in favor of staff members were invalid on the ground that the Tribunal had wrongly decided the question of its own jurisdiction. UNESCO contended that the staff members, who had held fixed-term appointments and who had complained of the Director-General's refusal to renew their contracts on expiry, had no legal right to such renewal, and that consequently the Tribunal had no jurisdiction, since it was competent to hear only complaints alleging non-observance of the terms of appointment of officials and of provisions of the staff regulations. It accordingly requested an advisory opinion of the Court.

The Court, on October 23, 1956, decided that an administrative memorandum, which had announced that all holders of fixed-term contracts would, subject to certain conditions, be offered renewals, might reasonably be regarded as binding on the organization and that in establishing the jurisdiction of the Tribunal, it was sufficient that the complaints should appear to have a substantial and not merely an artificial connection with the terms and provisions invoked. The

Court was not concerned with the decisions of the Tribunal on the merits. On the issue of jurisdiction, it expressed the opinion that the Administrative Tribunal had been competent to hear the complaints in question.

CONSTITUTION OF THE MARITIME SAFETY COMMITTEE
OF THE INTER-GOVERNMENTAL
MARITIME CONSULTATIVE ORGANIZATION (IMCO)

The Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization comprises, among other organs, an Assembly and a Maritime Safety Committee. Under the terms of Article 28 a, of the Convention establishing IMCO, this Committee consists of fourteen members elected by the Assembly from IMCO members having an important interest in maritime safety, "of which not less than eight shall be the largest ship-owning nations". When on January 15, 1959, the IMCO Assembly, for the first time, proceeded to elect the members of the Committee, it elected neither Liberia nor Panama, although those two states were among the eight members of IMCO which possessed the largest registered tonnage. Subsequently, the Assembly decided to ask the Court whether the Maritime Safety Committee was constituted in accordance with the IMCO Convention.

In its advisory opinion of June 8, 1960, the Court replied to this question in the negative.

FINANCIAL OBLIGATIONS
OF MEMBERS OF THE UNITED NATIONS

Article 17, paragraph 2, of the Charter of the United Nations provides that "the expenses of the Organization shall be borne by the members as apportioned by the General Assembly". On December 20, 1961, the General Assembly adopted a resolution requesting an advisory opinion on whether the expenditures authorized by it relating to United Nations operations in the Congo and to operations of the United Nations Emergency Force in the Middle East constitute "expenses of the Organization" within the meaning of this article and paragraph of the Charter.

The Court in its advisory opinion of July 20, 1962 (9 votes to 5) replied in the affirmative that these expenditures were "expenses of the United Nations". The Court pointed out that under Article 17, paragraph 2 of the Charter "the expenses of the Organization" are the amounts paid out to defray the costs of carrying out the purposes of the Organization. After examining the resolutions authorizing the expenditures in question the Court concluded that they were so incurred. The Court also analyzed the principal arguments which had been advanced against the conclusions that these expenditures should

be considered as "expenses of the Organization" and found these arguments to be unfounded.

International Law Commission

The International Law Commission is charged with promoting the progressive development of international law and its codification. It was established by the General Assembly on November 21, 1947; its activities are regulated by a Statute.

Originally the Commission had fifteen members, but in 1956 the Assembly increased the number to twenty-one and, at its sixteenth session, in 1961, the membership was brought up to twenty-five. The members are not government representatives but sit in their personal capacity of experts in international law.

In 1961 the Assembly elected the following twenty-five members of the Commission to serve for a five-year period beginning January 1, 1962. The members are:

Roberto Ago, of Italy; Gilberto Amado, of Brazil; Milan Bartov, of Yugoslavia; Herbert W. Briggs, of the United States; Marcel Cadieux, of Canada; Erik Castrén, of Finland; Abdullah El-Erian, of the United Arab Republic; Taslim Olawale Elias, of Nigeria; André Gros, of France; Eduardo Jiménez de Arechaga, of Uruguay; Victor Kanga, of Cameroon; Manfred Lachs, of Poland; Liu Chieh, of China; Antonio de Luna García, of Spain; Luis Padilla Nervo, of Mexico; Radhabinod Pal, of India; Angel Modesto Paredes, of Ecuador; Obed Pessou, of Dahomey; Shabtai D. Rosenne, of Israel; Abdul Hakim Tabibi, of Afghanistan; Senjin Tsuruoka, of Japan; Grigory I. Tunkin, of the USSR; Alfred Verdross, of Austria; Sir Humphrey Waldock, of the United Kingdom; and Mustapha Kamil Yasseen of Iraq.

Since its second session in 1950, the Commission has held its yearly session in Geneva. The Commission's records and documents are published in the *Yearbook of the International Law Commission*.

Draft Declaration on Rights and Duties of States

Completed at the Commission's first session in 1949, the draft declaration on rights and duties of states consists of fourteen articles. Four of these define basic rights of states: to independence, to the exercise of jurisdiction over state territory in accordance with international law, to equality in law, and to individual or collective self-defense against armed attack. The remaining ten articles define the basic duties of states.

At its 1949 session the General Assembly commended the draft declaration to the continuing attention of member states and of jurists of all nations. It also invited the suggestions of member states

on whether any further action should be taken by the Assembly on the draft declaration, and, if so, the exact nature of the document they wished drafted and the future procedure to be adopted in relation to it.

As the number of replies received from governments was considered too small to form the basis of a definite decision regarding the draft declaration, the Assembly, at its sixth session in 1951, decided to postpone further consideration of the matter.

No further development has taken place.

Formulation of the Nürnberg Principles

At its 1946 session the General Assembly unanimously affirmed the principles of international law recognized in the Charter and in the judgment of the International Military Tribunal for the prosecution and punishment of the major German war criminals (Nürnberg Tribunal). In the following year, it directed the International Law Commission to formulate those principles and also to prepare a draft code of offences against the peace and security of mankind. At its second session in June and July, 1950, the Commission completed a formulation of the principles.

At its 1950 session the Assembly decided to send the Commission's formulation to member governments for comment. Further, the Assembly requested the Commission, in preparing the draft code of offences against the peace and security of mankind, to take account of observations on the Nürnberg principles made during the session or subsequently received from governments.

No further action was taken on the formulation of the Nürnberg principles.

Reservations to Multilateral Conventions

The Secretary-General asked the General Assembly at its 1950 session for directions on the procedure he should follow on reservations made by states as conditions to their adherence to or ratification of conventions adopted by the General Assembly or multilateral treaties deposited with the Secretariat.

The Assembly invited the International Law Commission to study the general problem of reservations and in 1951 the Commission suggested a procedure which it considered "the most convenient for states to adopt for the future." The Commission felt that the criterion of compatibility of a reservation with the object and purpose of a multilateral convention—applied by the International Court of Justice to the Genocide Convention—would not be suitable for application to multilateral conventions in general. (*For the advisory opinion of the International Court on reservations to the Genocide Convention,*

see page 420.) The Commission believed that while no single rule uniformly applied could be wholly satisfactory, the Commission felt that, subject to certain modifications, the rule suitable for application in the majority of cases might be found in the practice hitherto followed by the Secretary-General.

The Assembly, on January 12, 1952, endorsed the Commission's recommendation that, in preparing future conventions, organs of the United Nations, the specialized agencies, and states should insert provisions as to the admissibility or non-admissibility of reservations and the effect to be attributed to them. The Assembly also recommended to all states that they be guided by the advisory opinion of the International Court in regard to the Genocide Convention. It requested the Secretary-General: (a) in relation to reservations to the Genocide Convention, to conform his practice to the advisory opinion of the Court; and (b) in respect of future conventions concluded under the auspices of the United Nations of which he is the depositary: (1) to continue to act as depositary in connection with the deposit of documents containing reservations or objections, without passing upon the legal effect of such documents, and (2) to communicate the text of such documents relating to reservations or objections to all states concerned, leaving it to each state to draw legal consequences from such communications.

On December 7, 1959, the Assembly extended the procedure under (b) above, to the whole depositary practice of the Secretary-General.

Nationality, Including Statelessness

A topic selected for codification by the Commission at its first session in 1949 was nationality, including statelessness.

At its second session in 1950 the Commission was asked by the Economic and Social Council to draft a convention regarding the nationality of married women, embodying certain principles recommended by the Commission on the Status of Women. In 1952, the Commission received from its special rapporteur a draft of a convention on the nationality of married persons, but decided that the question could not suitably be considered by it separately but only in the context, and as an integral part, of the whole subject of nationality. The Commission therefore took no further action with respect to the draft. On the other hand, the problem of the nationality of married women continued to receive consideration by other United Nations bodies (*see page 324*).

Meanwhile, in 1951 the Commission was informed of a request by the Economic and Social Council that it should prepare at the earliest possible date a draft international convention or conventions for the elimination of statelessness. As a result, the Commission, in

1953, prepared two drafts, one on the elimination of future statelessness, the other on the reduction of future statelessness. Both drafts were transmitted to governments for their observations and, in the light of these, the Commission in 1954 redrafted some of the articles. The two draft conventions, each consisting of eighteen articles, aimed, on the one hand, at facilitating acquisition of the nationality of a country by reason of birth within its borders and, on the other hand, at avoiding the loss of nationality except when another nationality was acquired.

On December 4, 1954, the Assembly expressed its desire that an international conference of plenipotentiaries be convened to conclude a convention for the reduction or elimination of future statelessness as soon as at least twenty states had communicated to the Secretary-General their willingness to cooperate in such a conference.

The conference met at Geneva from March 24 to April 18, 1959 and adopted provisions aimed at reducing statelessness at birth, but it failed to reach agreement as to how to limit the freedom of states to deprive citizens of their nationality. Consequently, the conference recommended to the competent organs of the United Nations that it be reconvened at the earliest possible time in order to complete its work.

At its second part, held in New York from August 15 to 28, 1961, the conference adopted a Convention on the Reduction of Statelessness, which was open for signature from August 30, 1961, until May 31, 1962. The treaty will enter into force two years after the date of the deposit with the Secretary-General of the sixth instrument of ratification or accession. By the end of 1962 the instrument had been signed by five states, but no ratifications or accessions had been received.

Ways and Means of Making the Evidence of Customary International Law More Readily Available

In 1950 the Commission approved a series of recommendations aimed at securing the widest possible distribution of publications of the United Nations which would make the evidence of customary international law more readily available. At its fifth session, the General Assembly invited the Secretary-General to consider and report to it upon these recommendations, on the basis of which the Assembly on February 1, 1952, requested the Secretary-General to submit a report as to the possible publication of a United Nations juridical yearbook, a consolidated index to the League of Nations *Treaty Series*, a supplementary list of treaty collections, and a repertoire of the practice of the Security Council.

On December 5 of the same year, the Assembly authorized the Secretary-General to undertake publication of a list of treaty collec-

tions and a repertoire of the practice of the Security Council. The Secretary-General was also asked to prepare and circulate to members a comparative study of the extent to which development in customary international law and selected legal activities of the United Nations could usefully be covered by an expansion of existing United Nations publications, by new special publications of limited scope, and by a United Nations juridical yearbook.

The *Repertoire of the Practice of the Security Council, 1946-1951* was published in 1954; since then, two supplements have been added, covering the years to 1958. A list of treaty collections was published in 1955.

In 1959 the General Assembly decided that a juridical yearbook should be published and in 1960 the Secretary-General presented to the Assembly a detailed outline of such a book. In 1961 members were invited to submit their comments and observations on the form and contents of the proposed book and in 1962 the Assembly requested the Secretary-General to undertake publication of a juridical yearbook, the first volume to appear in 1964.

Arbitral Procedure

Among the topics selected for codification by the Commission at its first session was arbitral procedure. On the basis of reports submitted by a special rapporteur, the matter was discussed at later sessions and, in 1952, the Commission approved a set of draft articles on the subject. In 1953 the articles, with certain revisions, were presented to the General Assembly, which decided to transmit the text to member governments for whatever comments they deemed appropriate.

In 1955 the Assembly decided to refer the draft back to the Commission to consider the comments of governments and the discussion in the Sixth (Legal) Committee in so far as they might contribute further to the value of the draft. The Commission was asked to report on the matter at the 1958 session of the Assembly.

The Commission considered the subject at its 1957 session, and in 1958 prepared a model set of rules which it submitted to the Assembly. On November 14, the Assembly decided to bring them to the attention of member states for use in drawing up treaties of arbitration. The Assembly also asked the governments for their comments, in order to facilitate a review of the matter by the United Nations at an appropriate time.

The Law of the Sea

WORK OF THE INTERNATIONAL LAW COMMISSION

At its first session in 1949, the Commission included the regime of the high seas and the regime of the territorial sea among topics on which it

considered codification was necessary and feasible. Work began upon the regime of the high seas with the appointment of a special rapporteur, who presented his first report to the Commission in 1950. In a second report, submitted in 1951, the special rapporteur also dealt with the continental shelf and various related subjects, namely, conservation of the resources of the sea, sedentary fisheries, and the contiguous zone. At the same session, the Commission decided to start work on the regime of the territorial sea. In his third report, the special rapporteur took into account a report of a group of experts, who had met at The Hague in April 1953, on various technical questions related to the topic, as well as comments received from governments giving their views on the delimitation of the territorial sea between two adjacent states.

At successive stages in the preparation of articles on these topics, the draft articles were submitted to governments for their comments and were revised in the light of those comments.

In 1954 the General Assembly asked the Commission to group together systematically all the articles it had adopted concerning the high seas, the territorial sea, the contiguous zone, the continental shelf, and the conservation of the living resources of the sea.

In 1955 the Commission continued its work in line with these instructions. It was aided considerably by results achieved by the International Technical Conference on the Conservation of the Living Resources of the Sea, held in April and May of that year.

In 1956, the Commission prepared its final report on the Law of the Sea, containing seventy-three draft articles and covering the territorial sea, the high seas, fishing, the contiguous zone, and the continental shelf. This report was submitted to the eleventh session of the Assembly which on February 21, 1957, decided to convene an international conference of plenipotentiaries to examine the law of the sea, taking account not only of the legal, but also of the technical, biological, economic, and political aspects of the problem. The results of its work were to be embodied in one or more international conventions or such other instruments as the conference might deem appropriate.

FIRST UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE ON THE LAW OF THE SEA

The first Conference on the Law of the Sea met in Geneva from February 24 to April 27, 1958. Of eighty-six states represented, seventy-nine were members of the United Nations and seven were members of specialized agencies but not members of the United Nations. In addition to the set of draft articles drawn up by the Commission, the Conference had before it documentary material prepared by the Secretariat and the specialized agencies, as well as papers by independent experts on the subject.

In view of the wide scope of its work, the Conference established five main committees, each of which, subsequently, submitted draft articles as approved. The Conference agreed to embody these draft articles, some in amended form, in the following four separate draft conventions: the Convention on the Territorial Sea and the Contiguous Zone, the Convention on the High Seas, the Convention on Fishing and the Conservation of the Living Resources of the High Seas, and the Convention on the Continental Shelf.

The Convention on the Territorial Sea and the Contiguous Zone proclaims the juridical character of territorial waters, sets out criteria for delimiting the territorial sea, establishes specific rules for the right of innocent passage of ships through territorial waters, and sets forth conditions in which it can be exercised or suspended.

The Convention on the High Seas sets out in general the conditions under which freedom of the high seas may be exercised.

The Convention on Fishing and the Conservation of the Living Resources of the High Seas establishes regulations on conservation which include a procedure for the settlement of disputes by a special commission whose decisions shall be binding.

The Convention on the Continental Shelf deals with the seabed which constitutes the prolongation of a continent. It regulates the exploitation and exploration of resources such as offshore oil or pearl-bearing oysters.

In addition to the four Conventions, the Conference adopted an Optional Protocol of Signature concerning the Compulsory Settlement of Disputes which may arise regarding the Conventions. This provides for compulsory jurisdiction of the International Court or, if the parties so prefer, for submission of the dispute to conciliation or arbitration. The Conference also adopted nine resolutions on various subjects, including the matter of convening a second United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea.

The final act of the Conference was signed on April 29, 1958. All the Conventions remained open for signature until October 31, 1958, by members of the United Nations or its specialized agencies and by any other state invited by the General Assembly to become a party; thereafter the Conventions remained open for accession by such states at any time. Each Convention was to enter into force thirty days after twenty-two ratifications or accessions were received.

On September 30, 1962, the Convention on the High Seas came into effect. By December 31, eighteen countries had ratified or acceded to the Convention on the Territorial Sea and the Contiguous Zone; seventeen countries had ratified or acceded to the Convention on the Continental Shelf; and nine countries had ratified or acceded to the Convention on Fishing and the Conservation of the Living Resources of the High Seas. The Optional Protocol had been signed by thirty-two countries.

SECOND UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE ON THE LAW OF THE SEA

On December 10, 1958, the General Assembly asked the Secretary-General to convene a second United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea to consider further the questions of the breadth of the territorial sea and fishery limits. These questions had been left unsettled by the first Conference on the Law of the Sea.

Eighty-two states and eight related agencies of the United Nations participated in the Conference, which was held in Geneva from March 16 to April 26, 1960. The Conference failed to adopt any substantive proposal on the two questions before it. It did, however, approve a resolution expressing the need for technical assistance in fishing.

Law of Treaties

This topic was selected for codification by the Commission in 1949 and assigned to a special rapporteur. Governments were requested to furnish the Commission with the texts of laws, decrees, judicial decisions, treaties, diplomatic correspondence, and other documents relative to the subject.

Three successive rapporteurs submitted reports and in 1961 the Commission decided: (1) that its aim would be to prepare draft articles intended to serve as the basis for a convention; (2) that the special rapporteur should be requested to re-examine the work previously done by the Commission in this field; and (3) that the special rapporteur should begin with the question of the conclusion of treaties and then proceed with the remainder of the subject, if possible covering the whole subject in two years.

In 1962 the Commission adopted twenty-nine draft articles, which concerned questions such as the negotiation and drafting of treaties and their entry into force and registration. These were intended to serve as the basis for a future code on the subject. The Commission decided to circulate the articles to governments for their comments, in the light of which the Commission will re-examine the draft in 1964.

On November 20, 1962, the General Assembly recommended that the Commission continue its work on the law of treaties and asked it to study further the question of extended participation in general multilateral treaties concluded under the auspices of the League of Nations, which question, the Assembly decided, would be placed on the provisional agenda of its eighteenth session.

Diplomatic Intercourse and Immunities

The question of codifying the rules of international law governing diplomatic intercourse and immunities has been before the United

Nations since 1952, when the General Assembly asked the Commission to undertake the task.

In 1954 the Commission appointed a special rapporteur who, in 1957, presented a report on the basis of which the Commission drew up a set of draft articles which were later circulated to member governments for their comment. In 1958 the draft was revised in the light of observations by governments and those made in the Assembly's Sixth (Legal) Committee, and the Commission proposed to the Assembly that the text be recommended to member countries with a view to the conclusion of a convention.

On December 7, 1959, the Assembly endorsed the recommendation of the Commission and decided that an international conference should be convened, not later than the spring of 1961, to formulate a convention on the subject of diplomatic intercourse and immunities. The chapter of the Commission's report, containing forty-five draft articles on diplomatic intercourse and immunities, was referred to the conference by the Assembly. A year later, on December 12, 1960, the Assembly also referred to the conference three draft articles on special missions approved by the Commission at its twelfth session.

The United Nations Conference on Diplomatic Intercourse and Immunities met in Vienna from March 2 to April 14, 1961, under the presidency of Alfred Verdross of Austria. It was attended by some 320 delegates from eighty-one countries, seventy-five of which were members of the United Nations and six of related agencies or parties to the Statute of the International Court.

The Conference adopted a convention entitled "The Vienna Convention on Diplomatic Relations," consisting of fifty-three articles and covering most major aspects of permanent diplomatic relations between states. It also approved an Optional Protocol concerning acquisition of nationality and an Optional Protocol on the compulsory settlement of disputes, as well as resolutions concerning, among other things, special missions and the consideration of civil claims. The resolution on special missions recommended that the Assembly refer the subject back to the Commission for further study; the topic will appear on the agenda of the Commission at its 1963 session.

The final act of the Conference was signed by April 18, 1961 by representatives of seventy-five states. The Convention and Optional Protocols remained open for signature until October 31, 1961, at the Federal Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Austria and subsequently, until March 31, 1962, at United Nations Headquarters. They remain open for accession at any time by all members of the United Nations or of any of its related agencies or parties to the Statute of the International Court, and by any other state invited by the General Assembly to become a party. The Convention will enter into force thirty days after twenty-two instruments of ratification or accession are received by the Secretary-General. The Optional Protocols will enter into

force when ratified or acceded to by two states, provided the Convention has already entered into force.

By December 31, 1962, the Convention on Diplomatic Relations had been ratified or acceded to by seven countries; the Optional Protocol concerning Acquisition of Nationality had been signed by twenty-one countries; and the Optional Protocol concerning the Compulsory Settlement of Disputes had received the signatures of thirty-one countries.

Consular Relations

In 1955 the Commission decided to initiate work on codification of the rules of international law governing consular relations and appointed a special rapporteur for the subject. The rapporteur submitted a first report in 1957 and a second one in 1960. At the Commission's 1960 session, a set of sixty-five draft articles was prepared and circulated to member governments for comment.

In 1961, the articles were revised in the light of observations by governments and a draft of seventy-one articles was adopted and submitted by the Commission to the General Assembly's sixteenth session later in the year. The Assembly agreed that the draft represented a satisfactory basis for an international convention and decided that an international conference of plenipotentiaries should be convened in Vienna at the beginning of 1963, to conclude one or more conventions on consular relations.

On December 18, 1962, the General Assembly invited states intending to participate in the Vienna conference to submit to the Secretary-General any amendments to the draft articles prepared by the Commission they might wish to propose in advance of the conference. These have to be submitted not later than February 10, 1963, for circulation to governments.

Revision of Commission's Statute

In 1950 the General Assembly asked the Commission to review its Statute and suggest revisions.

At its 1955 session the Commission recommended to the Assembly an amendment to article 12 of its Statute, to the effect that the Commission should sit at the European Office of the United Nations at Geneva, instead of New York, unless it decided otherwise after consultation with the Secretary-General. The Commission also recommended to the Assembly an amendment to Article 10 of the Statute, providing that members should be elected for a period of five years, instead of three. These amendments were adopted by the General Assembly on December 3, 1955.

Draft Code of Offences against the Peace and Security of Mankind

The task of preparing a draft code of offences against the peace and security of mankind was entrusted to the International Law Commission in 1947 by the same General Assembly resolution that requested it to formulate the Nürnberg principles.

In 1951, the Commission completed the draft of a code and submitted it to the Assembly. The offences enumerated in the code were characterized as "crimes under international law, for which the responsible individuals shall be punishable."

The Commission refrained from drafting an instrument for implementing the code; it thought that, pending establishment of an international criminal court, the code might be applied by national courts. The Commission considered it impracticable to prescribe a definite penalty for each offence, and left it to the competent tribunal to determine the penalty for any offence under the code, taking into account the gravity of the particular offence.

At its 1951 session, the Assembly postponed consideration of the draft code and in 1952 the item was omitted from its final agenda on the understanding that the matter would continue to be considered by the Commission. In 1953 the Commission requested its special rapporteur to prepare a new report. This report was submitted in 1954. The Assembly, at its ninth session later that year, considered that the draft raised problems closely related to that of the definition of aggression and decided to postpone further consideration of the code until the new special committee on defining aggression had submitted its report.

In 1957, the Assembly still considered that the draft code of offences raised problems related to that of the definition of aggression and, in view of the decision taken regarding the latter item, deferred consideration of the code until such time as it took up again the question of defining aggression. The Secretary-General was requested to transmit the text of the draft code to member states for comment and to submit their replies to the Assembly at such time as the item might be placed on its provisional agenda.

Definition of Aggression

The problem of defining aggression—whether a definition is possible, and if so what type of definition would be best—was first considered by the League of Nations in 1933 and has been before the United Nations since 1950. In the latter year, the Soviet Union proposed in the General Assembly that a definition be made, and submitted a list of acts constituting aggression.

Since then, the question has appeared on the agenda of the 1951, 1952, 1954, and 1957 sessions of the Assembly. It has also been discussed in the International Law Commission and in three special committees established by the Assembly in 1952, 1954, and 1957 respectively.

The Commission, to which the Assembly referred the matter in 1950, did not itself furnish an express definition but decided to include acts of aggression in the Draft Code of Offences against the Peace and Security of Mankind, which it was then preparing at the request of the Assembly.

On the basis of the Commission's report, the Assembly discussed the question of defining aggression at its 1951 session and came to the conclusion that it was both possible and desirable to achieve a definition by referring "to the elements which constitute it." At the Assembly's request, the Secretary-General submitted a detailed analysis which covered all aspects of the question.

In December 1952 the Assembly established a fifteen-member special committee which was requested to submit to the Assembly's ninth session in 1954, draft definitions of aggression or draft statements of the notion of aggression.

The special committee met at United Nations Headquarters from August 24 to September 21, 1953. Several texts were presented, which aimed at defining aggression, in one form or another. The committee, however, decided unanimously not to put the texts to a vote but to transmit them to the General Assembly and to member states for comments. Comments were received from eleven member governments.

In 1954 the Assembly established another special committee, consisting of nineteen members, and requested it to report to the eleventh session of the Assembly, in 1956.

The nineteen-member committee met at United Nations Headquarters from October 8 to November 1, 1956. It did not adopt a definition but decided to transmit its report to the Assembly, together with the draft definitions previously submitted to it.

In 1957 the Assembly decided to invite the views of twenty-two states admitted to the United Nations since December 14, 1955, and to renew the request for comments of members which had not submitted any previously. It also decided to refer the replies of governments to a committee composed of the twenty-one countries which served on the General Committee of the Assembly at its latest session.

The committee so established met at Headquarters from April 14 to 24, 1959, to study the comments from governments and to determine when it would be appropriate for the Assembly to resume consideration of the question. The committee decided that the fourteen replies received did not indicate any change of attitude and agreed to postpone further consideration of the question until April

1962, unless an absolute majority of its members favored an earlier meeting in the light of new developments.

The committee met again at United Nations Headquarters from April 2 to 9, 1962, but found itself unable to determine any particular time as appropriate for the Assembly to resume consideration of the question of defining aggression. The committee accordingly adjourned its deliberations until April 1965, unless a majority of its members should ask for an earlier meeting.

International Criminal Jurisdiction

At the request of the General Assembly, the International Law Commission in 1950 studied the desirability and possibility of establishing an international judicial organ for the trial of genocide and certain other crimes. The Commission concluded that the establishment of an international criminal court was both possible and desirable. It recommended against such a court being set up as a chamber of the International Court of Justice.

On December 12, 1950 the General Assembly set up a special committee of seventeen members to prepare one or more draft conventions and proposals relating to the establishment and statute of an international criminal court. In August 1951 the committee met in Geneva and completed a draft statute for an international criminal court. Such a court, the committee felt, should be set up by means of a convention rather than by a General Assembly resolution.

Under the draft statute proposed, the court would have a permanent, rather than an *ad hoc*, structure; it would, however, function only when cases were submitted to it; finally, it would be composed of nine judges representing as far as possible the main forms of civilization and the principal legal systems of the world.

The report of the committee, together with the draft statute, was communicated to governments for their observations. Only a few governments commented on the draft, however, and, in 1952, the Assembly decided to set up a new committee, consisting, again, of seventeen members, which met at United Nations Headquarters in the summer of 1953. The terms of reference of the committee were: (1) to explore the implications and consequences of establishing an international criminal court and of the various methods by which this might be done; (2) to study the relationship between such a court and the United Nations; and (3) to re-examine the draft statute.

The report of the committee, which embodied a number of changes in the 1951 draft statute and alternative texts in respect of several articles, was placed before the Assembly at its 1954 session. That body, however, decided to postpone consideration of the report until it had taken up the report of the 1956 special committee on

aggression, along with the draft code of offences against the peace and security of mankind.

In 1956 and 1957 consideration of the question was deferred and, at the latter session, the general consensus was, again, that the question was related both to the question of defining aggression and to the draft code of offences against the peace and security of mankind. In view of the decisions taken by the Assembly regarding those two items, the question of an international criminal jurisdiction, it was felt, should be deferred until such time as the Assembly took up the two related items.

Registration and Publication of Treaties and International Agreements

Article 102 of the Charter provides that every treaty and international agreement entered into by any member state after the coming into force of the Charter shall be registered and published by the Secretariat. No party to a treaty or agreement not so registered may invoke it before any United Nations organ.

In order to close the gap between the League of Nations *Treaty Series* and the new United Nations *Treaty Series*, the General Assembly in February 1946 instructed the Secretary-General to invite members to transmit treaties and agreements entered into before October 24, 1945, but which were not included in the League's *Treaty Series*. Similar treaties and agreements from non-member states would likewise be welcome for filing and publication.

Regulations to ensure the orderly registration and publication of such treaties and international agreements were adopted by the Assembly on December 14, 1946. Under these regulations, specialized agencies may also, subject to certain conditions, register or file and record a treaty with the Secretariat.

The texts of the treaties and agreements registered or filed and recorded are published by the Secretariat in the United Nations *Treaty Series* in their original languages, followed by translations in English and French.

By the end of 1962, there were 9,630 treaties and agreements registered or filed and recorded. The total of registered or filed certified statements relating to the treaties and agreements was 3,100.

Reparations for Injury Suffered in the Service of the United Nations

In 1949 the General Assembly authorized the Secretary-General to present claims against governments alleged to be responsible for the

injury or death of United Nations agents in the performance of their duties. Since 1950 the Secretary-General has determined in cases that the circumstances in which the United Nations agents concerned were killed appeared to involve the responsibility of certain states.

Privileges and Immunities

Article 105 of the Charter provides that the United Nations "shall enjoy in the territory of each of its Members such privileges and immunities as are necessary for the fulfillment of its purposes". It adds that "representatives of the Members of the United Nations and officials of the Organization shall similarly enjoy such privileges and immunities as are necessary for the independent exercise of their functions in connection with the Organization".

The same Article of the Charter, moreover, authorizes the General Assembly to make recommendations with a view to determining the details of the privileges and immunities to be enjoyed by the Organization as well as by representatives and officials, or to propose conventions for this purpose. In line with this latter provision, the General Assembly approved, in February 1946, the Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the United Nations and proposed it for accession by each member of the United Nations. At the end of 1962, seventy-six states were parties to the Convention.

In addition to the Convention, a number of special agreements dealing with privileges and immunities have been concluded with the states in whose territory the United Nations or one of its subsidiary organs has its headquarters or was to hold meetings. Notable among these are the Agreement of June 26, 1947, between the United Nations and the United States regarding the Headquarters of the United Nations in New York and the Interim Arrangement on Privileges and Immunities of the United Nations, concerning the European Office of the United Nations at Geneva, concluded with the Swiss Government on June 11, 1946.

The General Assembly, on November 21, 1947, approved a Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the Specialized Agencies.

United Nations laissez-passer

The Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the United Nations authorizes the United Nations to issue "United Nations *laissez-passer*" to its officials who travel for official purposes beyond national borders. The Convention provides that "the *laissez-passer* shall be recognized and accepted as valid travel documents" by the authorities of member states. It is further provided that applications for visas—where required—from holders of United Nations *laissez-passer*,

when accompanied by a certificate that they are travelling on the business of the United Nations, are to be dealt with as speedily as possible and that, in addition, such persons are to be granted facilities for speedy travel.

The International Court of Justice, by a resolution of the General Assembly, issues United Nations *laissez-passer* to its Judges, the Registrar, and the officials of the Court.

Under another provision of the Convention on Privileges and Immunities, the United Nations issues United Nations *laissez-passer* also to officials of the specialized agencies, on terms substantially similar to those applicable to United Nations officials. The International Labour Organisation, however, has been authorized by a special administrative arrangement with the United Nations to issue United Nations *laissez-passer* directly to its officials.

United Nations Tribunals in Libya and Eritrea

In 1950 the General Assembly adopted certain economic and financial provisions relating to Libya and established a United Nations Tribunal in Libya, consisting of three persons selected by the Secretary-General for their legal qualifications from the nationals of three different states not directly interested. The Tribunal was authorized to give instructions, on their request, to the administering states in Libya and to the Libyan Government after its establishment, and to the Italian Government for the purpose of giving effect to the economic and financial provisions mentioned above. It could also decide all disputes arising between the Italian and Libyan Governments concerning the interpretation and application of the economic and financial provisions.

With the full agreement of the Libyan and Italian Governments, the Assembly decided to terminate the Tribunal on December 31, 1955, and establish in its place, with the same powers, functions, and jurisdiction, an Italian-Libyan Mixed Arbitration Commission consisting of three members, one of whom was to be appointed by the Italian Government, one by the Government of Libya, and the third by the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

In pursuance of a resolution adopted at the Assembly's sixth session, a United Nations Tribunal was set up in Eritrea, with a composition and functions similar to those of the United Nations Tribunal in Libya. The Tribunal was terminated in April 1954.

Arbitration of Disputes of a Private Law Character in International Trade

In 1953 the International Chamber of Commerce, a non-governmental organization in consultative status to the Economic and Social Council,

drew the Council's attention to difficulties in obtaining enforcement of commercial arbitral awards on an international scale. After consideration of the matter by the Council, a conference of plenipotentiaries was convened for the purpose of concluding a convention on the basis of a draft convention on the recognition and enforcement of arbitral awards that had been prepared by an *ad hoc* committee of the Council. The conference was also to consider other possible measures for increasing the effectiveness of arbitration in the settlement of private law disputes.

The United Nations Conference on International Commercial Arbitration was held at United Nations Headquarters from May 20 to June 10, 1958. The Conference adopted and opened for signature the Convention on the Recognition and Enforcement of Foreign Arbitral Awards, under which contracting states undertake to recognize and enforce arbitral awards made in the territories of other states, or awards not considered as domestic awards in the state where enforcement of the award is sought. The Convention entered into force on June 7, 1959.

The Conference also adopted a resolution expressing the wish that the United Nations through its appropriate organs would take such steps as it deems feasible to encourage further study of measures for increasing the effectiveness of arbitration in the settlement of private law disputes. In light of the conclusions reached at the Conference, a resolution on international commercial arbitration was adopted by the Economic and Social Council on April 17, 1959. The resolution set out a broad framework for international cooperation in the promotion of the more effective use of arbitration and in so doing recommended what might be done in that connection by the Secretary-General and the regional economic commissions of the United Nations.

In compliance with the resolution of the Council, the Secretariat also communicated with a large number of organizations interested in arbitration and invited suggestions designed to promote more effective use of arbitration as a means of facilitating the continued development of international trade. Among the suggestions received by the Secretariat were proposals for undertaking educational and training programs in arbitration; the establishment of basic standards of modern arbitration laws as models for domestic legislation; the creation of new national arbitral bodies and regional arbitration centers; and the development of panels of arbitrators. The various suggestions have been examined and kept in view by the Secretariat.

The United Nations regional economic commissions for Europe (ECE) and for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE) have been concerned with the arbitration of disputes of a private law nature in international trade for a considerable time. In respect of the work of ECE, particularly important was the conclusion on April 21, 1961—under the auspices of ECE—of a European Convention on International Com-

mercial Arbitration. The Convention was concluded at a special meeting of plenipotentiaries which met to consider a draft convention that had been drawn up by the *ad hoc* Working Group on Arbitration of the ECE Committee on the Development of Trade. The Convention, which is primarily designed to meet certain difficulties that may impede the use of arbitration as an effective means of settling European trade disputes, has not as yet entered into force.

In respect of ECAFE, a Center for the Promotion of Commercial Arbitration was established within the ECAFE Secretariat in 1962 pursuant to the recommendations of a working group of experts which met in Bangkok in January of that year. The working group proposed that national correspondents to the Center might be designated in the countries of the region, so that such correspondents might cooperate with the Center in the performance of its functions. In accordance with this recommendation, national correspondents to the Center have now been designated by governments of a large number of the ECAFE countries. The overall purpose of the Center is that of general promotion of arbitral development in the ECAFE region in regard to disputes arising from international trade. A fundamental objective, therefore, is that of informing relevant groups in the various countries of the advantages of and facilities for arbitral settlement through dissemination of information and other appropriate measures. Among the other functions of the Center are the identification of the arbitral problems and requirements of the countries of the region; the ascertainment of how available technical assistance resources may best be employed; research activities; the preparation of lists of qualified arbitrators in the region; and what might be undertaken in regard to matters such as the conciliation of disputes, model rules of arbitration, and special problems requiring legislative action.

Sovereignty over Natural Resources

The United Nations Commission on Permanent Sovereignty over Natural Resources was established by the General Assembly in 1958 to make a survey of the status of permanent sovereignty of peoples and nations over their natural wealth and resources and to submit recommendations for strengthening this right. In the conduct of this survey, the Commission was asked to pay due regard to the rights and duties of states under international law and to the importance of encouraging international cooperation in the economic development of underdeveloped countries.

The Commission, composed of nine members, met in 1959, 1960, and 1961 and discussed the subject as well as a study entitled *The Status of Permanent Sovereignty over Natural Wealth and Resources*,

prepared by the Secretariat at its request and later revised. This study, which incorporated information supplied by forty-one member governments and certain specialized agencies, consists of five chapters: (1) national measures affecting the ownership or use of natural resources by foreign nationals or enterprises; (2) international agreements affecting the foreign exploitation of natural resources; (3) international adjudication and studies prepared under the auspices of inter-governmental bodies relating to responsibility of states in regard to the property and contracts of aliens; (4) status of permanent sovereignty over natural wealth and resources in newly-independent states and in non-self-governing and trust territories; and (5) economic data pertaining to the status of sovereignty over natural wealth and resources in various countries.

The Commission's report, covering the work of its three sessions together with all relevant documents and records of debates of the Economic and Social Council were discussed *in extenso* by the General Assembly at its seventeenth session in 1962 (*see page 263*). The discussion, which took place in the Second (Economic) Committee, centered on a draft resolution recommended by the Commission which contained a declaration of the following principles: (1) sovereign right over natural resources must be exercised in the interest and well-being of the state concerned; (2) the development, exploration, and disposition of such resources, as well as the import of capital should be in conformity with rules and conditions which the people or nations freely consider to be necessary or desirable; (3) the capital imported and the earnings on that capital should be governed by national legislation and international law, and the profits derived must be shared in the proportions freely agreed upon between the investors and the recipient state; (4) nationalization, expropriation, and requisitioning should be based on grounds of public utility, security, or national interest; in such cases, the owner shall be paid appropriate compensation in accordance with the rules in force in the state taking such measures and with international law; in any case where the question of compensation gives rise to controversy, national jurisdiction should be resorted to; and upon agreement by the parties concerned settlement of the dispute may be made through arbitration or international adjudication; (5) the free and beneficial exercise of sovereignty over natural resources must be furthered on the basis of sovereign equality; (6) international cooperation for the economic development of underdeveloped countries should be encouraged so as to contribute to the exercise of sovereignty over natural resources; (7) violation of the rights of peoples and nations over their natural wealth and resources is contrary to the United Nations Charter and hinders the development of international cooperation and the maintenance of peace; and (8) states and international organizations shall strictly and

conscientiously respect the sovereignty over natural resources in accordance with the United Nations Charter.

A large part of the discussion in the Committee was devoted to the question of compensation in cases of nationalization, expropriation, or requisitioning. Three different amendments were submitted with regard to the meaning of "appropriate compensation" and many amendments, both oral and written, were submitted to the provision concerning the settlement of disputes arising out of the question of compensation.

On December 14, 1962, the draft resolution proposed by the Commission, as amended, was adopted by the Assembly. Besides containing the declaration of eight principles enumerated above, it, among other things, reiterated that the sovereign right of every state to dispose of its wealth and its natural resources should be respected; considered it desirable to promote international cooperation for the economic development of developing countries, and that economic and financial agreements between the developed and the developing countries must be based on the principles of equality and of the right of peoples and nations to self-determination; attached particular importance to the question of promoting the economic development of developing countries and securing their economic independence; and noted that the creation and strengthening of the inalienable sovereignty of states over their natural wealth and resources reinforces their economic independence.

Legal Aspects of the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space

The General Assembly, on December 20, 1961, adopted a five-part resolution dealing with various aspects of the question of outer space. The first part commended to states as guiding principles that international law, including the United Nations Charter, applies to outer space and celestial bodies, and that outer space and celestial bodies are free for exploration and use by all and are not subject to national appropriation. It further invited the Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space to study and report on the legal problems involved.

The Legal Sub-Committee of the Committee, which had been established in March 1962, held its first session—consisting of fifteen meetings—between May 28 and June 20 that year.

In September, the report of the Legal Sub-Committee was considered by its parent body, the Outer Space Committee.

In December, at the seventeenth session of the General Assembly, the First (Political) Committee gave considerable attention to the report of the Outer Space Committee, with primary emphasis given to the development of law for outer space.

General Principles

During 1962, four proposals containing general principles relating to the exploration and use of outer space were submitted respectively by: the Soviet Union, the United Arab Republic, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

SOVIET UNION:

DECLARATION OF BASIC LEGAL PRINCIPLES

The Soviet Union, at the Legal Sub-Committee meetings in May and June, had introduced a draft declaration containing the following principles: (a) the exploration and use of outer space should be carried out for the benefit of the whole of mankind; (b) outer space and celestial bodies should be free for exploration and use by all states; no state might claim sovereignty in outer space; (c) all states should have equal rights in outer space; (d) outer space activities should be carried out in accordance with the principles of the United Nations Charter and other generally recognized principles of international law; (e) scientific and technological advances should be applied to outer space for the promotion of cooperation among states; the use of outer space for propagating war, national or racial hatred or enmity between nations should be prohibited; (f) the implementation of any measures that might hinder the exploration and use of outer space for peaceful purposes of other countries should be permitted only after prior discussion of and agreement upon such measures between the countries concerned; (g) activities pertaining to the exploration and use of outer space should be carried out exclusively by states and the sovereign rights of states to the objects they launched into outer space should be retained by them; (h) the use of satellites for the collection of intelligence information in the territory of foreign states is incompatible with the objectives of the conquest of outer space; and (i) states should render assistance to spaceships and their crews which might make an emergency landing on the territory of a foreign state or on the high seas and spaceships, satellites, and capsules found beyond the limits of the launching state should be returned to that state.

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC:

DRAFT CODE FOR INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION IN THE PEACEFUL USES OF OUTER SPACE

The second set of principles took the form of a draft resolution presented to the second session of the Outer Space Committee in September. It proposed that the Committee should be guided in its work by certain principles including the following: (a) activities of member states in outer space should be confined solely to peaceful uses; (b) in

their policies toward outer space member states should promote international and peaceful cooperation; (c) member states bear special responsibility emanating from their obligations to secure the safety of space for astronauts in outer space; (d) member states agree to provide every possible assistance to personnel of space vehicles who may be the subject of accident or distress; (e) member states undertake to return to the state or international organization responsible for launching space vehicles these vehicles and their personnel; (f) one of the main objectives of cooperation in outer space is to develop special programs in which the developing countries can participate; (g) member states agree to make full use of the facilities and experience of all international organizations, specialized agencies, and non-governmental organizations, which have activities in outer space; and (h) member states undertake to give all possible assistance to the United Nations and its affiliated organizations, to undertake joint programs to promote science and technology in outer space.

THE UNITED KINGDOM: BASIC PRINCIPLES

The United Kingdom proposal took the form of a draft declaration of basic principles which was presented to the First (Political) Committee at the Assembly's seventeenth session. It provided for the following: (a) the freedom of exploration and use of outer space and celestial bodies, which freedom should include free navigation by means of space vehicles, the establishment of space stations, the conduct of scientific research, and the landing on and exploration of celestial bodies, and should be exercised by all states with due regard to the interest of other states and to the need for consultation and cooperation between states; (b) non-appropriation of outer space and celestial bodies; (c) application of international law, the provisions of the United Nations Charter, and other applicable international agreements to outer space; and (d) equal rights of all states, for themselves and for their nationals, in the exploration and use of outer space, to be exercised in accordance with international law and with the principles affirmed in the declaration.

THE UNITED STATES: BASIC PRINCIPLES

The United States proposal, also presented to the First Committee, was drafted in the form of a resolution by which the Assembly would commend to states, for their guidance, a declaration of the following principles: (a) outer space and celestial bodies are free for exploration and use by all states, on the basis of equal rights, in conformity with international law; (b) in the exploration and use of outer space and celestial bodies, states are bound by the relevant rules of international law and the relevant provisions of international treaties and

agreements including the United Nations Charter; (c) outer space and celestial bodies are not subject to national appropriation; (d) states should render assistance to personnel of space vehicles in distress and return them to the launching authority; (e) states should return to the launching authority any space vehicle or part landed by reason of accident, distress, or mistake, and upon request, the authority should furnish identifying data prior to the return; (f) a launching state or international organization should be internationally liable for injury or damage caused by a space vehicle on earth or in air space; and (g) jurisdiction over a space vehicle in outer space should be retained by a launching authority, and ownership and property rights should remain unaffected in outer space and upon return to earth.

DISCUSSIONS OF GENERAL PRINCIPLES

During the discussions in the Legal Sub-Committee, the Outer Space Committee, and the First Committee, all the speakers were in favor of the following principles in general: freedom of exploration and use of outer space by all states; equal rights of states in outer space activities; non-appropriation of outer space and celestial bodies; and application of international law and the provisions of the United Nations Charter to activities in outer space. With regard to the last mentioned principle, some representatives considered that there was need for further specification of the applicable rules of international law and that not all the provisions of the United Nations Charter were applicable to outer space.

While both the United States and the Soviet Union maintained that the question of reserving the use of outer space solely for peaceful purposes was related to the question of disarmament and did not come within the competence of the organ dealing with outer space problems, some other delegations emphasized the need for such a provision as a general principle governing the activities of states in outer space. Some representatives considered that such provisions as the prohibition of the use of outer space for war propaganda or incitement of racial hatred, and the banning of the use of artificial satellites for the collection of intelligence information in foreign states fell outside the competence of the Outer Space Committee and were inappropriate for legal formulation.

Differences in views also existed in regard to whether activities that might hinder the peaceful uses of outer space must be subject to prior agreement between the countries concerned, whether private entities might participate in outer space activities, and whether the general principles should be embodied in a resolution to be adopted by the General Assembly or in an international treaty to be signed by states.

Assistance to and Return of Astronauts and Spaceships

During the Legal Sub-Committee meetings in May and June 1962, the Soviet Union and the United States had each submitted a proposal on this subject.

SOVIET UNION PROPOSAL: INTERNATIONAL AGREEMENT ON THE RESCUE OF ASTRONAUTS AND SPACESHIPS MAKING EMERGENCY LANDINGS

The Soviet Union draft international agreement contained the provision that assistance must be rendered to crews of spaceships which have met with an accident and steps must be taken to rescue astronauts making an emergency landing. The agreement also provided that: (a) the assistance furnished by one state to another should in no way differ from the assistance which could be furnished to its own astronauts; (b) foreign spaceships, satellites, and capsules found by a contracting state on its territory or salvaged on the high seas should be returned without delay to the launching state if identification marks showed clearly their national origin and if the launching state had officially announced the launching; space vehicles which had aboard devices for the collection of intelligence information in the territory of another state should not be returned; (c) the expenses incurred by a state in fulfilling the obligation to return astronauts or objects of another state should be reimbursed by the launching state.

UNITED STATES PROPOSAL: ASSISTANCE TO AND RETURN OF SPACE VEHICLES AND PERSONNEL

The United States proposal was drafted in the form of a resolution by which the General Assembly would commend the following principles to states for their guidance: (a) all possible assistance should be rendered to the personnel of space vehicles who might land by reason of accident, distress, or mistake; (b) space vehicles and their personnel so landed should be returned to the state or international organization responsible for launching; (c) expenses incurred in providing assistance to or return of space vehicles and their personnel should be borne by the state or international organization responsible for launching.

As the proposals of the Soviet Union and the United States were discussed in the Sub-Committee, it was generally agreed that the rescue and return of space vehicles and astronauts should be regulated. Opinions differed, however, as to what the regulations should be and how they were to be achieved. Some members felt that there should first be a General Assembly resolution and subsequently an interna-

tional agreement on this subject; other members favored a binding international instrument; still others maintained that the principles involved in the subject were so clear and simple that they did not require elaboration in a formal legal instrument, but could be regulated by way of an Assembly resolution with which states would willingly comply.

Liability for Space Vehicle Accidents

The United States, at the first session of the Legal Sub-Committee, had made a proposal concerning the liability for space vehicle accidents. The proposal was made in the form of a draft resolution, by which the Secretary-General would be requested to constitute an advisory panel of legal experts—drawn from various geographic areas—to prepare a draft international agreement dealing with the subject. The draft resolution contained, among others, the following principles: (a) states or international organizations responsible for the launching of space vehicles should be liable internationally for personal injury, loss of life, or property damage caused thereby; (b) a claim based on damage caused by a space vehicle did not require proof of fault on the part of those responsible for launching the vehicle in question; (c) a claim might be presented to the state or international organization responsible for causing damage without regard to the prior exhaustion of local remedies; (d) the International Court of Justice should have jurisdiction to adjudicate any dispute relating to the interpretation or application of the agreement on liability in the absence of agreement between the states concerned.

In the Sub-Committee there was general agreement on principle (a), above, of the draft resolution. But with respect to the principle of absolute liability, views were expressed that it would be difficult to prove fault of negligence in the case of space vehicles as contrasted with aircraft, and that this principle could not be applied in all instances, for example where two space vehicles collided.

Within the context of liability, other questions were suggested for consideration: whether compensation should be limited in amount; whether the test for liability should be jurisdiction over, rather than ownership of, the vehicle, in cases of joint projects where a vehicle owned by one state was launched by another; whether liability should be joint or several when jurisdiction over a vehicle was shared by more than one state; to whom a claim for compensation should be presented if there was no indication of the origin of a vehicle which had caused the damage.

As to the settlement of disputes, the following views were expressed by various delegates: that arbitration be envisaged, that the advisability of establishing a special tribunal to settle the amount of

compensation payable for damage caused be studied, and that the jurisdiction of the International Court of Justice should be extended to cases involving space vehicle accidents only when the parties to the dispute consented.

Other Legal Problems

During the debates at the first session of the Legal Sub-Committee, it was suggested that the following legal problems arising from the exploration and use of outer space be examined: (1) demarcation between outer space and atmospheric space; (2) jurisdiction and law applicable to men in outer space and manned stations on celestial bodies; (3) measures to prevent interference with space projects due to scientific experiments or other space activities; (4) prevention of contamination of or from outer space and celestial bodies; (5) control over the launching and orbits of spacecraft and artificial satellites; (6) United Nations control of radio and television programs through outer space instrumentalities.

The Question of High-Altitude Nuclear Tests

The Soviet Union brought to the Legal Sub-Committee's attention a statement of the Soviet Government dated June 3, 1962, in which the high-altitude nuclear tests of the United States were characterized as a gross violation of the elementary rules of international law. The United States representative termed the tests as a necessary measure for the defense and security of his country, and quoted a statement of his Government of May 28, 1962 which described the effects of the tests as being negligible, with no hazards for health.

General Assembly Resolution at Seventeenth Session

The General Assembly on December 14, 1962 adopted unanimously a draft resolution which, among other things, noted with regret that the Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space had not yet made recommendations on legal questions connected with the peaceful uses of outer space, called upon all member states to cooperate in the further development of law for outer space, and asked the Committee to continue urgently its work on the further elaboration of basic legal principles governing the activities of states in the exploration and use of outer space, on the liability for space vehicle accidents, on assistance to and return of astronauts and space vehicles, and on other legal problems. (*For Assembly action on other than legal aspects, see page 48.*)

Official Seal, Emblem, and Flag of the United Nations

The General Assembly, on December 7, 1946, adopted an official seal and emblem of the United Nations and recommended that members prohibit its use without the authorization of the Secretary-General.

On October 20, 1947, the Assembly adopted a flag of the United Nations. Its design consists of the official emblem in white centered on a light blue background. The Secretary-General was directed to draw up regulations concerning its dimensions and proportions, and to adopt a code to regulate the use of the flag and protect its dignity.

The Flag Code

As drawn up and amended by the Secretary-General on November 11, 1952, the text of the Flag Code contains regulations governing the design of the flag, the maintenance of its dignity, the appropriate protocol and position of the flag, and its use and manufacture. One provision sets out that any violation of the Flag Code may be punished in accordance with the law of the country in which such violation takes place.

REGULATIONS

In addition to the Flag Code, the Secretary-General is empowered to draw up regulations implementing and clarifying any provisions of that Code and to prescribe the manner and occasion for the proper display of the United Nations flag.

The text of both the Flag Code and the regulations is contained in a pamphlet entitled *The United Nations Flag Code and Regulations* issued by the United Nations.

ADMINISTRATIVE AND BUDGETARY QUESTIONS

Budget of the United Nations

The Secretary-General prepares the budget estimates for the Organization. These are reviewed first by the Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions and then by the Assembly's Fifth (Administrative and Budgetary) Committee. The Assembly itself takes final action on the budgetary recommendations of its Fifth Committee.

The regular budget appropriations for the United Nations through 1962 were:

<i>Financial Year</i>	<i>Type of Appropriation</i>	<i>Date of Approval</i>	<i>Amount \$</i>	<i>Total Budget (gross) \$</i>
1946	Budget	Dec. 14, 1946	19,390,000	19,390,000
1947	Budget Supplement	Dec. 14, 1946 Nov. 20, 1947	27,740,000 876,568	28,616,568
1948	Budget Supplement	Nov. 20, 1947 Dec. 11, 1948	34,825,195 4,460,541	39,285,736
1949	Budget Reduction	Dec. 11, 1948 Dec. 9, 1949	43,487,128 283,048	43,204,080
1950	Budget Reduction	Dec. 10, 1949 Dec. 14, 1950	49,641,773 5,121,000	44,520,773
1951	Budget Supplement	Dec. 15, 1950 Dec. 20, 1951	47,798,600 1,126,900	48,925,500
1952	Budget Supplement	Dec. 21, 1951 Nov. 25, 1952	48,096,780 2,450,880	50,547,660
1953	Budget Supplement	Dec. 21, 1952 Dec. 9, 1953	48,327,700 1,541,750	49,869,450
1954	Budget Supplement	Dec. 9, 1953 Dec. 14, 1954	47,827,110 701,870	48,528,980
1955	Budget Supplement	Dec. 17, 1954 Dec. 16, 1955	46,963,800 3,264,200	50,228,000
1956	Budget Supplement	Dec. 16, 1955 Dec. 7, 1956	48,566,350 2,117,000	50,683,350
1957	Budget Supplement Supplement	Dec. 21, 1956 Feb. 27, 1957 Dec. 14, 1957	48,807,650 2,008,050 2,359,000	53,174,700
1958	Budget Supplement	Dec. 14, 1957 Dec. 13, 1958	55,062,850 6,059,050	61,121,900
1959	Budget Supplement	Dec. 13, 1958 Dec. 5, 1959	60,802,120 854,980	61,657,100
1960	Budget Supplement	Dec. 5, 1959 Dec. 20, 1960	63,149,700 2,585,200	65,734,900
1961	Budget Reduction	Dec. 20, 1960 Dec. 18, 1961	72,969,300 1,320,000	71,649,300
1962	Budget Supplement	Dec. 20, 1961 Dec. 20, 1962	82,144,740 3,673,480	85,818,220
1963	Budget	Dec. 20, 1962	93,911,050	

Financing the Budget

The regular budget of the United Nations is financed by contributions from member states on a scale determined periodically by the General Assembly on the recommendation of its Committee on Contributions. In terms of certain General Assembly decisions on the subject, the Committee is to use capacity-to-pay as the major factor, subject to the principles of a maximum and minimum percentage contribution and to the application of certain other criteria which have been laid down from time to time.

Pending receipt of assessed contributions, expenditures are financed from a Working Capital Fund, consisting of advances by member states. The Fund is also available for certain other purposes specified in the Assembly's annual resolution on it. For 1963 the level of the Fund has been established at \$40 million.

The General Assembly in 1957 decided that, in principle, the maximum contribution of any one member state to the ordinary expenses of the United Nations should not exceed 30 per cent of the total. The assessment of the largest contributor—the United States—is eventually to be lowered to that percentage. The minimum assessment is established at 0.04 per cent. The scale of assessments for members' contributions to the United Nations regular budget for the financial years 1962, 1963, and 1964, as adopted in a General Assembly resolution of December 18, 1961, is set out below:

<i>Member State</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Member State</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Afghanistan	0.05	Congo (Brazzaville)	0.04
Albania	0.04	Congo (Leopoldville)	0.07
Argentina	1.01	Costa Rica	0.04
Australia	1.66	Cuba	0.22
Austria	0.45	Cyprus	0.04
Belgium	1.20	Czechoslovakia	1.17
Bolivia	0.04	Dahomey	0.04
Brazil	1.03	Denmark	0.58
Bulgaria	0.20	Dominican Republic	0.05
Burma	0.07	Ecuador	0.06
Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic	0.52	El Salvador	0.04
Cambodia	0.04	Ethiopia	0.05
Cameroon	0.04	Federation of Malaya	0.13
Canada	3.12	Finland	0.37
Central African Republic	0.04	France	5.94
Ceylon	0.09	Gabon	0.04
Chad	0.04	Ghana	0.09
Chile	0.26	Greece	0.23
China	4.57	Guatemala	0.05
Colombia	0.26	Guinea	0.04
		Haiti	0.04

<i>Member State</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Member State</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Honduras	0.04	Paraguay	0.04
Hungary	0.56	Peru	0.10
Iceland	0.04	Philippines	0.40
India	2.03	Poland	1.28
Indonesia	0.45	Portugal	0.16
Iran	0.20	Romania	0.32
Iraq	0.09	Saudi Arabia	0.07
Ireland	0.14	Senegal	0.05
Israel	0.15	Somalia	0.04
Italy	2.24	South Africa	0.53
Ivory Coast	0.04	Spain	0.86
Japan	2.27	Sudan	0.07
Jordan	0.04	Sweden	1.30
Laos	0.04	Thailand	0.16
Lebanon	0.05	Togo	0.04
Liberia	0.04	Tunisia	0.05
Libya	0.04	Turkey	0.40
Luxembourg	0.05	Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Re-	
Madagascar	0.04	public	14.97
Mali	0.04	Union of Soviet Socialist Re-	
Mexico	0.74	publics	14.97
Morocco	0.14	United Arab Republic*	0.30
Nepal	0.04	United Kingdom of Great Bri-	
Netherlands	1.01	tain and Northern Ireland	7.58
New Zealand	0.41	United States of America	32.02
Nicaragua	0.04	Upper Volta	0.04
Niger	0.04	Uruguay	0.11
Nigeria	0.21	Venezuela	0.52
Norway	0.45	Yemen	0.04
Pakistan	0.42	Yugoslavia	0.38
Panama	0.04		
		TOTAL	100.00

* Allocation between Syria and the United Arab Republic to be determined.

The resolution of the 1961 Assembly was adopted prior to the entry into the United Nations of eleven new countries: Algeria, Burundi, Jamaica, Mauritania, Mongolia, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Syria, Tanganyika, Trinidad and Tobago, and Uganda.

In terms of an Assembly resolution of December 20, 1962, Mauritania, Mongolia, Sierra Leone and Tanganyika were assessed at 0.04 per cent each. At the same time, the Assembly decided that the joint assessment of 0.30 per cent for Syria and the United Arab Republic should be divided between the two states as follows: Syria, 0.05 per cent; United Arab Republic, 0.25 per cent. Syria resumed its separate membership in the United Nations in October 1961. The other new members—Algeria, Burundi, Jamaica, Rwanda, Trinidad and Tobago, and Uganda—will be the subject of a later recommendation by the Committee on Contributions.

The Assembly, in its 1961 resolution, agreed that states not members of the United Nations but which participate in certain of its activities should be called upon to contribute toward the 1962, 1963, and 1964 expenses of such activities on the following basis:

<i>Non-Member State</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Non-Member State</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Federal Republic of Germany	5.70	Republic of Viet-Nam	0.16
Liechtenstein	0.04	San Marino	0.04
Monaco	0.04	Switzerland	0.95
Republic of Korea	0.19		

Those activities and the countries participating in them are as follows:

The International Court of Justice: Liechtenstein, San Marino, and Switzerland;

The international control of narcotic drugs: Federal Republic of Germany, Liechtenstein, Monaco, Republic of Korea, Republic of Viet-Nam, San Marino, and Switzerland;

The International Bureau for Declarations of Death of Missing Persons: Federal Republic of Germany;

The Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East: Republic of Korea and Republic of Viet-Nam; and

The Economic Commission for Europe: Federal Republic of Germany.

Also, in 1961, the Assembly asked the Committee on Contributions to re-examine, in 1962, the scale of assessments, in the light of the discussions in the Fifth Committee and of such further information as might be available to it. In addition, the Assembly recommended that the Committee study all possible ways and means of expanding the existing arrangements for facilitating the payment of contributions by member states to the regular United Nations budget in currencies other than United States dollars.

At its seventeenth session, in 1962, the Assembly, acting on the recommendation of the Committee on Contributions, requested the Secretary-General to undertake an expert study of different systems of national accounting with a view to obtaining advice on all relevant problems of comparability arising in the preparation of statistical material for use by the Committee when it further examines the scale of assessments. The Committee was asked to report to the Assembly in 1963 with any recommendations concerning possible revisions in the scale as may appear warranted.

The principle of assessment of member states is also used by the United Nations to finance the cost of the United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF) and the United Nations Operation in the Congo (ONUC). Other activities, such as the Expanded Program of Technical

Assistance, the United Nations Special Fund, the United Nations Children's Fund, and aid to certain refugees, are financed by voluntary contributions, for which purpose pledging conferences are held during regular sessions of the Assembly.

Financing of Peace-keeping Operations

The nature of the peace-keeping operations of the United Nations and the manner in which they should be financed have been the subject of considerable debate since the establishment of UNEF and ONUC, and divergent positions have been taken by member states. At its sixteenth session, in 1961, the General Assembly, having been informed of substantial arrears in the payment of assessments, mainly for ONUC and UNEF, adopted on December 20 a resolution recognizing the need "for authoritative legal guidance as to obligations" of member states under the Charter in the matter of financing the United Nations operations in the Congo and in the Middle East. In this resolution, the Assembly asked the International Court of Justice to give an advisory opinion as to whether the expenditures in the Congo, undertaken in response to Security Council and Assembly decisions, and expenditures authorized in resolutions relating to operations of UNEF constitute "expenses of the Organization" within the meaning of Article 17, paragraph 2, of the Charter. (This paragraph states: "The expenses of the Organization shall be borne by the members as apportioned by the General Assembly.")

On December 19, 1962, the Assembly voted to accept the advisory opinion of the International Court to the effect that the expenditures for these operations constitute "expenses of the Organization" within the meaning of Article 17, paragraph 2, of the Charter (*see page 422*).

The Assembly also set up a twenty-one-member working group to study special methods for financing peace-keeping operations of the United Nations involving heavy expenditures, such as those for the Congo and the Middle East, including a possible special scale of assessments for such operations. The group, known as the Working Group on the Examination of the Administrative and Budgetary Procedures of the United Nations, was requested to examine the situation arising from the arrears of some member states in the payment of contributions for the financing of the peace-keeping operations, and to recommend, within the letter and spirit of the Charter, arrangements designed to bring such payments up to date, bearing in mind the relative economic positions of such member states.

The Assembly, on December 20, 1962, voted to convene a special session of the General Assembly before June 30, 1963, to consider the financial situation of the Organization in the light of the report of the Working Group, expected to be submitted by March 31, 1963.

Pending appropriate action, the Assembly further authorized the Secretary-General to spend up to \$10 million a month until June 30, 1963 for ONUC, and up to \$1,580,000 a month for UNEF.

United Nations Bond Issue

In an effort to ease the steadily increasing financial difficulties confronting the Organization and to provide needed financing for continuing activities, the General Assembly, at its sixteenth session in 1961, authorized the Secretary-General to sell up to \$200 million worth of United Nations bonds to governments, national banks, and approved non-profit institutions or associations. In approving the bond issue, the Assembly stated that in existing circumstances "extraordinary financial measures" were required but that "such measures should not be deemed a precedent for the future financing" of United Nations expenses.

The bonds, issued for a twenty-five-year period, bear an annual interest rate of two per cent. Provision is made in the regular budget of the United Nations for the payment of the interest charges and the installments of principal due on such bonds. Proceeds are to be utilized for purposes normally related to the Working Capital Fund.

As of the end of December 1962, fifty-seven countries had either bought United Nations bonds or announced their intention to do so. The total amount paid or pledged at that date was \$133,950,937 of which \$120,559,762 represented actual payments.

Geographical Distribution of the Secretariat

Questions relating to the geographical distribution of the internationally recruited members of the staff of the United Nations Secretariat and the proportion of staff serving on fixed-term contracts were considered at the General Assembly's sixteenth session, in 1961, with the result that the Acting Secretary-General was invited to present to the next Assembly "a statement of his considered views on how to improve the geographical distribution of the staff". The Secretary-General had already indicated in his annual report that for the period ending August 31, 1961, there were 1,382 members of the Secretariat occupying posts subject to geographical distribution.

The General Assembly, also in 1961, examined the comments and recommendations of a Committee of Experts appointed by it in 1959, on this and other issues affecting the activities and organization of the Secretariat.

At its seventeenth session, in 1962, the Assembly again devoted considerable attention to the question. In his report, considered by the Assembly, the Secretary-General presented his observations on a number of aspects previously discussed and made a series of pro-

posals aimed at securing as wide a geographical spread as possible in the recruitment of all international staff.

On December 19, the Assembly adopted a resolution recommending that the Secretary-General be guided by certain principles and factors in his efforts to achieve a more equitable geographical distribution in the composition of the Secretariat staff, this distribution to take into account the fact of membership, the member state's contribution, and its population. Other factors to be considered would be the relative importance of posts at different levels, the need for a more balanced regional composition of the staff at the higher salary levels and, concerning career appointments, the need to reduce "under-representation."

The Assembly also asked the Secretary-General to review periodically the geographical distribution of the staffs of the Technical Assistance Board, the Special Fund, and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and to report to the Assembly each year on this question. In addition, the Secretary-General was also asked to report on the progress achieved in the geographical distribution of the staff of the Secretariat.

Secretariat Salaries and Post Adjustments

On November 28, 1961, the General Assembly decided to increase the salaries of United Nations staff in the professional and higher categories, effective January 1, 1962. It also approved a new schedule of post adjustments for staff in these categories and made changes in the staff assessments applicable to the salaries in the professional category and above.

At its seventeenth session, in 1962, the Assembly approved additional appropriations for increases in salary and wage scales for general service staff at United Nations Headquarters and in Geneva. Increases were effective October 1, 1961 for Headquarters and January 1, 1962 for Geneva, and for manual worker staff in New York, effective from April 1, 1962.

The Assembly, also, in 1962, recommended that the net base salary of the Secretary-General be increased to \$27,500 beginning January 1, 1963; the costs of a furnished residence, the repairs and maintenance of which, excluding provision of household staff, continue to be borne by the Organization. The representation allowance of the Secretary-General was increased to \$22,500.

Staff Regulations and Retirement Provisions

The General Assembly, on February 13, 1946, adopted provisional staff regulations embodying the fundamental rights and obligations of

the staff. At subsequent sessions it has amended these regulations in various respects.

Permanent Staff Regulations were adopted on February 2, 1952, and amended at subsequent Assembly sessions.

On December 15, 1946, the Assembly adopted a provisional scheme for staff retirement, insurance, and related benefits. On December 7, 1948, it adopted regulations for the United Nations Joint Staff Pension Fund; these became effective on January 23, 1949, and have been amended at subsequent Assembly sessions, including a major revision adopted at the fifteenth session, in 1960, affecting the level of pensionable remuneration and post adjustments.

United Nations Administrative Tribunal

The United Nations Administrative Tribunal was established by the General Assembly on November 24, 1949. It is composed of seven members, no two of whom may be nationals of the same state. Three of the members constitute the Tribunal for the consideration of a particular case.

The manner and methods of proceedings of the Tribunal are covered in detail by the Statute adopted at the time of its establishment, as well as the obligations of the Organization in respect of its judgments. Under the procedure established by the General Assembly on November 8, 1955, either party to a case, or the government of any member state, may contest a judgment within thirty days of its publication and request an advisory opinion of the International Court of Justice. Such requests are reviewed in the first instance by a committee of member states whose representatives served on the General Committee of the most recent session of the General Assembly. This committee decides whether there is a substantial basis for submitting the matter to the Court.

Staff Assessment and Tax Equalization

In accordance with a General Assembly resolution of November 18, 1948, as amended by a resolution of December 10, 1949, United Nations salaries were established on a gross basis, subject to the deduction from individual salaries, at specified rates, of an assessment comparable to national income taxes. In terms of these decisions, the revenue derived from this assessment was to be applied as income-in-aid of the budget.

The Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the United Nations provides that members of the Secretariat shall be exempt from taxation on the salaries and emoluments paid to them by the

United Nations. In cases where a government has not acceded to the Convention and its nationals on the staff have been subject to both staff assessment and national income tax, the United Nations grants relief from this double taxation by reimbursing the staff member in respect of national tax payments.

Until 1956 tax reimbursements were treated as a charge to the regular budget. In order to achieve equal treatment of contributing governments in this respect, the General Assembly in a resolution of December 15, 1955, established the Tax Equalization Fund. The resolution provided that all revenues derived from staff assessment, unless otherwise disposed of by specific resolutions of the Assembly, are to be credited to the Fund. The amounts in the Fund are in turn credited to a series of subaccounts held in the name of each member state, the amount credited to each account being in proportion to the member's percentage contribution to the budget for the financial year concerned. All amounts paid to staff members as relief from double taxation are charged to the account of the member state concerned.

United Nations Telecommunication System

In successive decisions of the General Assembly, and by authority of the International Telecommunication Union, the United Nations operates its own radio-telegraph network, linking its main offices.

Establishment of the system was approved in principle by the General Assembly in 1948 and, in December, 1950, the Assembly instructed the Secretary-General to proceed with a modified telecommunication scheme. At the Assembly's sixth session in 1951-52, the Secretary-General reported that it had been found possible to establish United Nations links between local telecommunication networks established in various areas.

Under the Headquarters Agreement between the United Nations and the United States (*see page 462*), the Organization is empowered to set up its own radio-telegraph circuit between Headquarters in New York and the European Office of the United Nations in Geneva. In turn, the United Nations radio station in Geneva is in communication with United Nations radio stations in Jerusalem, Gaza, Karachi, and Leopoldville. Traffic from the United Nations radio station in Bangkok is relayed from Karachi to Geneva.

In its work of truce observation, the United Nations has found it necessary to establish local radio-telegraph networks. United Nations Military Observer Groups in India and Pakistan, the United Nations Emergency Force in Egypt, the United Nations Truce Supervision Organization in Palestine, and the United Nations Operation in the Congo, have such networks, which connect the headquarters of each group with its posts.

The arrangements for the operation of the United Nations radio stations have been made bilaterally between the Organization and the governments of the states concerned, by means of formal and informal agreements.

By Article 26 of the International Telecommunication Convention (Buenos Aires, 1952), the telecommunication operating services of the United Nations are entitled to the rights specified in, and are bound by the obligations of, the Convention and its regulations. In consequence, the United Nations is regarded as an administration in connection with the operation of its telecommunication services. A resolution adopted at Buenos Aires in 1952 declared that the United Nations network should never in normal circumstances compete with existing public channels of communication. Only United Nations traffic is therefore accepted for transmission over the network and, except in case of emergency, traffic of the specialized agencies is carried only when it is connected with and paid for by a United Nations program.

United Nations Postal Administration

In accordance with a resolution adopted by the General Assembly on November 16, 1950, the United Nations Postal Administration was established on January 1, 1951.

An agreement was signed on March 28, 1951, by Secretary-General Trygve Lie for the United Nations and by Ambassador Warren Austin and Postmaster General Jesse Donaldson for the United States, establishing the postal relationship between the two parties.

Under the terms of this agreement, the United States Post Office Department operates the United Nations Post Office Station on behalf of the United Nations. The United Nations provides the space, custodial services, and utilities. The staff and equipment are provided by the United States Post Office Department. Services rendered at this post office are the same as those offered by any United States post office having comparable operations, except that only United Nations postage stamps and postal stationery are used, which are provided free of charge to the post office by the United Nations. The services offered by this post office, however, are not available to the general public.

The United States Post Office Department, in return for its services, retains all revenue from the sale of United Nations postage stamps and postal stationery. Furthermore, it is reimbursed by the United Nations for postage applied to all mail dispatched from Headquarters.

The United Nations, through its Postal Administration, engages in the sale of United Nations postage stamps and postal stationery

for philatelic purposes. In addition to filling orders received by mail for First Day Covers, the Postal Administration operates a stamp counter in the concourse level of the General Assembly building at Headquarters, where visitors may purchase United Nations stamps for both philatelic and postage purposes and where they may dispatch mail bearing United Nations stamps.

All orders for stamps and inquiries should be addressed to the United Nations Postal Administration, United Nations, New York.

United Nations International School

In 1947 an association of Secretariat parents was granted rent-free use of the "Guest House" at United Nations temporary headquarters at Lake Success to operate a nursery school. Two years later the Association for the United Nations International School, having absorbed the earlier group, opened its first primary class in the same building under a charter from the State of New York.

In 1950, the School took up temporary headquarters in Parkway Village, Queens, and later, in 1958 opened a new branch at 70th Street and First Avenue in Manhattan. Adding a new grade each year, in 1961 the School reached its goal of providing a full program from elementary through secondary school. Enrollments increased steadily and in 1962 a site was located at 89th Street and York Avenue suitable for the construction of a school for 750 students, which, according to plans, should be ready by August 1965.

From the beginning the General Assembly has encouraged the development and expansion of the School and has contributed financially to its operation. In 1959 the Assembly decided to contribute for a period of five years such continuing financial aid as it might consider necessary. For 1960, it was agreed, the contribution would be \$100,000. In 1961 and again in 1962, the Assembly decided to contribute \$50,000 toward liquidating the operational deficit anticipated for the current year besides an amount of \$20,000 to assist plans for the permanent accommodation of the School. Also, in 1962, the Assembly expressed its appreciation to the Mayor and the City of New York for their continuing cooperation and the Secretary-General was asked to continue to use his good offices to assist the Board of Trustees in raising from voluntary sources the additional funds required for construction and the creation of an endowment fund which would make the School self-supporting.

Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation

The Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation, a privately-established non-official foundation, received a commendation from the General Assembly

at its seventeenth session. The Assembly, taking up a recommendation of the Economic and Social Council from its summer session, adopted unanimously a resolution which noted with satisfaction "the initiatives taken by members of the United Nations in establishing and supporting the . . . Foundation as a living memorial devoted primarily to furthering his efforts to promote the objectives of the United Nations in the training of citizens of developing countries to hold responsible posts." The Assembly also noted that the Foundation would carry out projects that conform to the general aims and policies of the United Nations.

HEADQUARTERS OF THE UNITED NATIONS

Site for Permanent Headquarters

On December 10, 1945, the Congress of the United States unanimously resolved to invite the United Nations to establish its permanent home in the United States, and the decision to accept the invitation was made in London on February 14, 1946, after offers and suggestions for permanent sites had also been received from many other parts of the world. At that time, the first part of the first session of the General Assembly was meeting in London's Central Hall, Westminster, while the Secretariat was in Church House.

Early in 1946 the Secretariat was established provisionally at Hunter College in the Bronx, New York, and in the middle of August the United Nations moved to the Sperry Gyroscope plant at Lake Success in Long Island. A few meetings of the Security Council were held at the Henry Hudson Hotel and at 610 Fifth Avenue, New York, prior to the move to Lake Success. Several General Assembly sessions took place in the New York City Building at Flushing Meadow, and on two occasions the Assembly met in Paris.

An offer by John D. Rockefeller, Jr. of \$8.5 million for the purchase of the present eighteen-acre site was accepted by the General Assembly on December 14, 1946. Concurrently with the Rockefeller gift, the City of New York offered certain lands within and adjacent to the site, together with waterfront rights and easements. The City also undertook a \$30 million improvement program in the immediate area, including the construction of a vehicular tunnel under First Avenue.

Once the site was decided on, the first Secretary-General, Trygve Lie, appointed the architect Wallace K. Harrison, of the United States, to guide the architectural and development plans in cooperation with an international board of design consultants from ten countries.

The plans prepared by the international board of consultants

were unanimously adopted by the General Assembly on November 20, 1947. Demolition of the existing structures on the site had already begun on July 8. The cornerstone of the buildings was laid on October 24, 1949—United Nations Day—at an open-air plenary meeting of the General Assembly at which the President of the United States, among others, spoke. The first offices in the Secretariat building were occupied on August 21, 1950. By June 1951 the rest of the staff had been moved into Headquarters.

The four main structures, all interconnected, that comprise Headquarters, are the thirty-nine-story office building of the Secretariat; the long, low Conference building paralleling the East River; the General Assembly Hall; and the Dag Hammarskjöld Library.

The official address is United Nations, New York. Telephone PLaza 4-1234.

United States Loan and Total Construction Costs

In approving the plans prepared by the international board, the Assembly also authorized the Secretary-General to negotiate with the United States Government for an interest-free loan of \$65 million to finance the cost of construction. An agreement was signed on March 23, 1948, by the Secretary-General and the United States representative to the United Nations providing for repayment of the loan without interest over a period of thirty-one years from July 1, 1951, to July 1, 1982, in annual installments ranging from \$1 million to \$2.5 million. The agreement was approved by the United States Congress and signed by the President of the United States on August 11, 1948. By the end of 1962 the United Nations had repaid \$22.5 million to the United States Government.

The General Assembly in February 1952 approved an additional sum of \$1.5 million (provided from the United Nations budget) to complete construction of the Headquarters. On December 11, 1962, to meet the needs of the growing membership of the Organization, the General Assembly approved, in principle, sums for the enlargement of the facilities at Headquarters, including an appropriation for 1963 of \$14,500 for completion of the final phase of the architectural survey and of \$85,000 for the drawing of plans and preparatory work on approved projects.

Headquarters Agreement

On June 26, 1947, the Secretary-General and the Secretary of State of the United States signed an agreement dealing with the privileges and immunities of the United Nations Headquarters. This agreement

came into force on November 21, 1947, and under it the United Nations has the power to make necessary regulations for the Headquarters district.

Dag Hammarskjöld Library

Originally, the United Nations Library occupied a six-story building built for the New York City Housing Authority and located on the southwest corner of the Headquarters site.

On November 3, 1959, the General Assembly accepted a gift of \$6.2 million from the Ford Foundation for the construction, furnishing, and equipping of a new building to house the Library. Subsequently the old building was razed, and work began on the new building on November 21, 1960. On November 16, 1961, the General Assembly decided to dedicate the new Library as the Dag Hammarskjöld Library in tribute to the late Secretary-General's service to the United Nations. Early in 1962 the building was ready for the library services to move in.

The Library is highly specialized in the subjects of international law and in political, economic, and social affairs and is devoted primarily to providing information, research materials, and library services required by delegations and the Secretariat. It includes a collection of documents and publications of the United Nations and the specialized agencies, as well as books, periodicals, and pamphlets concerning them. The Woodrow Wilson Memorial Library, a gift of the Woodrow Wilson Foundation, contains documents of the League of Nations and publications dealing with the League, the peace movements, and international relations between the two World Wars. There is also a special collection of maps and geographical reference books.

The services of the main Library are supplemented by the Archives and by three branch collections in the Secretariat building—for Economic and Social Affairs, Legal and Security Council Affairs, and Trusteeship and Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories.

United Nations Day

On October 31, 1947, the General Assembly decided that October 24, the anniversary of the entry into force of the Charter of the United Nations, should be officially called "United Nations Day," and be devoted to informing the peoples of the world of the aims and achievements of the Organization and to obtaining support for its work. Member governments were invited to cooperate in the observance of the anniversary.

PART THREE

*Intergovernmental Agencies Related
to the United Nations*

Intergovernmental Agencies Related to the United Nations

INTRODUCTION

Much of the United Nations work aimed at improving the economic and social conditions of the people of the world is carried out by specialized intergovernmental agencies. The United Nations Charter provides that the "various specialized agencies, established by intergovernmental agreement and having wide international responsibilities, as defined in their basic instruments, in economic, social, cultural, educational, health, and related fields, shall be brought into relationship with the United Nations".

The instruments defining this relationship are the individual agreements between the United Nations and the specialized agencies. These agreements are first negotiated by the Committee on Negotiations with Intergovernmental Agencies, established for this purpose by the Economic and Social Council; they are then approved by the appropriate organ of the specialized agency concerned and submitted for approval to the Council, and by it to the General Assembly. Agreements with thirteen specialized agencies are at present in force.

Although not a specialized agency, the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) is an autonomous intergovernmental organization under the aegis of the United Nations, established to further the peaceful uses of atomic energy. An agreement on the Agency's working relationship with the United Nations was approved by the General Conference of the Agency on October 23, 1957, and by the General Assembly of the United Nations on November 14, 1957.

The agreements between the United Nations and the specialized agencies generally follow a standard pattern. As a rule, they provide for reciprocal representation at meetings; reciprocal inclusion of agenda items when requested; exchange of information and documents; uniformity of personnel arrangements; and coordination of statistical services as well as budgetary and financial arrangements. Each specialized agency has agreed to consider any recommendation made to it by the United Nations and to report to the Organization on the action taken to give effect to any such recommendation. In the case of the agreements with the International Bank for Recon-

struction and Development (IBRD) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the United Nations has agreed to consult with these agencies prior to making any recommendation.

To implement the agreements relating the agencies with the United Nations, to avoid overlapping of activities, and, in general, to promote the coordination of efforts, an Administrative Committee on Coordination (ACC) was established in February 1947 by the Economic and Social Council; it reports to the Council periodically. This Committee is composed of the Secretary-General of the United Nations, who acts as Chairman, and the executive heads of the specialized agencies, the Director General of IAEA, the Executive Chairman of the Technical Assistance Board (TAB), the Managing Director of the Special Fund, the Executive Director of UNICEF, the Commissioner-General of the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees, the High Commissioner for Refugees, and the Executive-Secretary of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), who participate in the work of ACC as observers.

Consultations in ACC take place on subjects of common interest to the different organizations within the United Nations system, for example, on the Expanded Program of Technical Assistance, and on United Nations programs in science and technology, education and training, rural and industrial development, public administration, atomic energy, oceanography, the peaceful uses of outer space, and public information.

In addition to meetings of ACC, *ad hoc* consultations take place between the United Nations and the agencies, in order to improve administrative and budgetary coordination. Arrangements have been made concerning, among other questions: a joint system of external audit; the common collection of contributions; mutual problems affecting the currency of contributions; common financial regulations; a Joint Staff Pension Fund; uniform recruitment policies; personnel regulations, salary, allowance, and leave systems; the International Civil Service Advisory Board; and certain common administrative services.

Among its subsidiary bodies are the Consultative Committee on Administrative Questions (CCAQ) and the Consultative Committee on Public Information (CCPI), in which the United Nations itself, its operating agencies, the specialized agencies, IAEA, GATT, and TAB are represented. CCAQ, established in 1947 and normally meeting once a year, deals with personnel, budgetary, and financial questions as well as with administrative questions such as common services, records, and other administrative matters. CCPI, established in 1949, seeks to form a common information policy and to coordinate the information services involved.

As regards technical assistance, the United Nations itself, IAEA, and eight of the specialized agencies participate in the Expanded Pro-

gram of Technical Assistance (*see page 249*). The International Labour Organisation, the Food and Agriculture Organization, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, the International Civil Aviation Organization, the World Health Organization, the International Telecommunication Union, the World Meteorological Organization, and the Universal Postal Union receive funds from the expanded program's budget. IBRD and IMF cooperate in carrying out the program, but receive no funds from the contributions. All these agencies, along with the United Nations, are represented on TAB. (*For a list of intergovernmental agencies related to the United Nations, see pages 545-551. A chart showing membership in the United Nations and its related intergovernmental agencies appears on page 552.*)

INTERNATIONAL ATOMIC ENERGY AGENCY

(IAEA)

Origin

The International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) had its origin in a proposal made to the United Nations General Assembly on December 8, 1953, by the President of the United States. He suggested the establishment of a world organization devoted exclusively to the peaceful uses of atomic energy. The general lines of that proposal were unanimously endorsed by the General Assembly on December 4, 1954.

The Statute was approved unanimously on October 26, 1956, at a conference held at United Nations Headquarters in New York and within three months it had been signed by eighty nations. The Agency legally came into being on July 29, 1957, with the deposit of the necessary ratifications.

The Statute conference set up a Preparatory Commission of eighteen states, which first met at United Nations Headquarters and subsequently arranged for the first session of the General Conference, which was held in Vienna from October 1 to 23, 1957.

Functions

IAEA, in the words of its Statute, "shall seek to accelerate and enlarge the contribution of atomic energy to peace, health, and prosperity throughout the world. It shall ensure, so far as it is able, that assistance provided by it or at its request or under its supervision or control, is not used in such a way as to further any military purposes".

To achieve this aim, the Agency:

assists research on and practical application of atomic energy for peaceful purposes, including the production of electric power, with special consideration being given to less developed areas;

acts as an intermediary between members of the Agency in providing services or supplying materials, equipment, or facilities;

fosters the exchange of scientific and technical information;

encourages the exchange and training of scientists and experts;

establishes and administers safeguards to ensure that fissionable and other materials, services, equipment, facilities, and information made available by or through the Agency are not used for the furtherance of any military purposes; and

establishes, in consultation or in collaboration with the competent organs of the United Nations family concerned, standards of safety for protection of health and minimization of dangers to life and property, and provides for the application of these standards.

Organization

The three organs of the Agency are the General Conference, the Board of Governors, and the secretariat.

The General Conference consists of all members, each having one vote. It meets normally once a year and takes its decisions by majority vote, except on financial matters, amendments to the Statute, and suspension from membership, which require a two-thirds majority.

The Board of Governors at present consists of twenty-three members designated or elected on a technological and regional basis. It carries out the statutory functions of the Agency and takes decisions by majority vote except for certain specific matters, such as the budget, which requires a two-thirds majority. The Board meets approximately every third month, and its committees meet frequently.

The members of the Board of Governors for 1962-63 are: Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Colombia, Denmark, France, Greece, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Iran, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Pakistan, South Africa, USSR, United Kingdom, United States, and Viet Nam.

The Chairman of the Board of Governors is Ishrat H. Usmani, of Pakistan.

The staff of the Agency is headed by a Director General. He carries out his functions subject to the general direction and control of the Board of Governors, with the approval of the General Conference. His term of office is four years. The present Director General is Sigvard Eklund, of Sweden, who succeeded Sterling Cole, of the United States, on December 1, 1961.

The secretariat is organized into five departments: Research and

Isotopes; Technical Operations; Training and Technical Information; Safeguards and Inspection; and Administration, Liaison and Secretariat. Its staff, at the end of 1962, numbered 551 persons.

IAEA headquarters are in Vienna, Austria.

Membership

Membership is open to those states, whether or not members of the United Nations or of any of its specialized agencies, which deposit an instrument of acceptance of the Agency's Statute after their membership has been approved by the General Conference upon the recommendation of the Board of Governors. In recommending and approving such membership, the Board of Governors and the General Conference "shall determine that the state is able and willing to carry out the obligations of membership in the Agency, giving due consideration to its ability and willingness to act in accordance with the purposes and principles of the Charter of the United Nations".

As of December 31, 1962, seventy-nine countries were members of IAEA.

Budget

The Agency's activities are financed out of: (a) the regular budget, based on the assessed contributions of member states; (b) the General Fund, derived from voluntary contributions; and (c) the United Nations Expanded Program of Technical Assistance. The total budget estimate for 1963 amounts to a little over \$9.5 million, of which \$2 million is due to come from voluntary contributions.

Activities

IAEA completed the setting up of its administrative structure and the recruitment of its staff in 1958 and 1959; by 1960 and 1961 its activities were well under way. By 1962, it was clear that nuclear power would, within a relatively short period of time, significantly supplement, though not substitute, conventional power to meet rising needs. Therefore, IAEA stepped up its efforts to further the development of nuclear power, while continuing to promote the use of radioisotopes in medicine, agriculture, hydrology, and industry; to spread scientific information and technical skills through fellowships, training courses, conferences and publications; to give technical assistance; and to deal with the legal aspects of nuclear hazards.

Conferences and Technical Assistance

Many parts of the world have made slow progress in applying atomic energy to peaceful uses due to their lack of scientific and technical personnel. IAEA, therefore, has paid particular attention to its training program. In 1962, 440 fellowships were awarded, bringing the total of awards since the start of the program in 1958, to 1,879. The fellowship program has been supplemented by lectures of visiting professors and other teaching staff; by courses for the training of specialists in medical and agricultural uses of radioisotopes and in radiation protection organized by the Agency; and by courses in radioisotope techniques, held in a number of member states, with the aid of the Agency's two mobile radioisotope laboratories.

A number of scientific conferences, symposia, and seminars have been organized, normally at the rate of ten or twelve a year. The subjects of some recent conferences included nuclear electronics (Belgrade, 1961); plasma physics and controlled nuclear fusion research (Salzburg, 1961); use of radioisotopes in animal biology and the medical sciences (Mexico City, 1961). During 1962, twelve major scientific meetings were attended by 1,672 scientists from thirty-one countries and six international organizations. Altogether, 610 scientific papers were discussed on these occasions.

At the request of member states, the Agency sent out during 1958-62 nine preliminary assistance missions, which studied the requirements of forty-five countries in respect of nuclear power, raw materials, reactors, the agricultural and medical uses of radioisotopes, and the training of nuclear personnel. In 1962, assistance was rendered in the form of the services of experts to thirty-five countries, and of equipment to twenty-four countries.

Research

To promote research, IAEA grants contracts to scientific institutes in member countries. During 1962, 110 such research contracts were awarded; fifty-nine of them, awarded earlier, were renewals. The Agency has also put equipment at the disposal of institutions.

Research was carried out at the Agency's own laboratory facilities. The Agency's functional laboratory, at Seibersdorf, near Vienna, which became operational in 1961 after a contribution of \$600,000 by the United States and donations of equipment by other member states, works in the field of physics, chemistry, and the application of radioisotopes in agriculture. At Agency headquarters, there are two laboratories, the first for measuring the radioactivity of the human body and the second for the application of radioisotopes to hydrology. And, at Monaco, there is a laboratory for oceanographic research which operates in cooperation with the Government of Monaco.

IAEA is collaborating with Norway in a program of research in reactor physics with the zero-power reactor NORA, near Oslo. The special fissionable material required is leased to the Agency under the cooperation agreement concluded between the Agency and the United States. The Agency also made an agreement, signed in 1961, with the United States and Yugoslavia, by which the latter would be supplied with a 100-kw TRIGA Mark II research and training reactor and the fuel for it; similar agreements have been made with Finland in 1960, and with Pakistan and the Congo (Leopoldville) in 1962. In addition, the use of research reactors in southeast Asia was discussed by a study group in Bangkok in 1962. By the end of that year, there were some 300 research reactors in the world, many of which were located in developing countries.

Radiation Safety and Regulatory Work

The growth in the number of nuclear facilities where radiation hazards might arise has made the Agency concentrate much of its efforts on radiation protection, including the support of research on the effects of radiation, international meetings of experts, and the preparation of internationally valid recommendations of a scientific, technical, and legal nature.

IAEA published a manual on the safe handling of radioisotopes and, subsequently, addenda to it. It also established a set of measures to protect health and ensure safety in atomic energy operations carried out with its assistance and support, and prepared regulations for the safe transport of radioactive materials. A group of experts made recommendations on the safe disposal of radioactive wastes into the sea; another group studied the liability problems involved in the use of nuclear ships, which resulted, in 1962, in the adoption and opening for signature, by the Diplomatic Conference on Maritime Law, of a convention on the liability of operators of nuclear ships. The Agency's Basic Safety Standards and the report of the IAEA international dosimetry experiment carried out at Vinca, Yugoslavia—where a reactor incident had occurred—were published.

Safeguards

The Board of Governors approved the principles and procedures of a "safeguards program" to prevent a diversion for military purposes of assistance given by IAEA to its member states. In 1962 IAEA carried out the first inspection under this program at the joint IAEA-Norwegian research project near Oslo, mentioned above, and at the Finnish research reactor. Under an agreement with the United States, intended to assist the Agency in developing and testing its safeguards

system, inspection also took place at four reactors in that country. At the request of the governments concerned, Agency experts evaluated the safety of reactors in Thailand and the Philippines and of a reactor site in East Pakistan. Several of the Agency's scientific meetings were also concerned with reactor safety problems.

Publications

Some forty volumes of scientific and technical material and nearly 100 different booklets and journals with a total of about 24,000 printed pages were published by IAEA in 1962. They include: thirty-six volumes of conference proceedings; two technical directories; seventeen volumes in the Agency's Safety Series, six in the Review Series, ten in the Technical Reports Series, and five in the Bibliographical Series; and the quarterly journals *Nuclear Fusion* and *IAEA Bulletin*, and miscellaneous publications.

International Collaboration

An agreement concerning the Agency's working relationship with the United Nations was approved by the General Conference in 1957 and by the General Assembly of the United Nations on November 14 of that year. The agreement emphasizes the need for close links between the two organizations. Relationship agreements have also been concluded with ILO, FAO, UNESCO, WHO, ICAO, WMO, IMCO, and the European Nuclear Energy Agency of the Organization for European Economic Cooperation (ENEA) and the Inter-American Nuclear Energy Commission of the Organization of American States (IANEC). Nineteen non-governmental organizations have consultative status with the Agency. In addition, regular working-level relations are maintained with a number of intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations.

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION

(ILO)

Origin

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) was established in 1919 as an autonomous institution associated with the League of Nations. Its original Constitution formed part of the Treaty of Versailles. In 1946 ILO became the first specialized agency associated with the United Nations.

Functions

ILO was founded to advance the cause of social justice and, in so doing, to contribute to the establishment of universal and lasting peace. The Declaration of Philadelphia, adopted by the International Labor Conference in 1944 and later annexed to the ILO Constitution, reaffirms the principles to which the Organisation is dedicated. It states that "all human beings, irrespective of race, creed, or sex, have the right to pursue both their material well-being and their spiritual development in conditions of freedom and dignity, of economic security, and equal opportunity". The ILO's motto, taken from the Declaration of Philadelphia is: "Poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere".

One of the most distinctive features of ILO is its tripartite structure. It is an intergovernmental agency, but employers and workers as well as governments take part in its work, and in the democratic forum of ILO, employers' and workers' delegates have a free voice. They can, and often do, disagree with the governments and with each other.

Organization

The International Labor Conference is the supreme deliberative body of ILO. It meets annually at Geneva and is attended by more than 1,000 delegates, technical advisers, and observers. Each national delegation is composed of two government delegates, one employers' delegate, and one workers' delegate.

The Conference elects the Governing Body (executive council) of the International Labor Office, adopts the ILO budget, sets international labor standards (in the form of conventions and recommendations), and provides a world forum for the discussion of social and labor questions.

The Governing Body normally meets three or four times a year at Geneva. It is composed of twenty government members, ten employers' members, and ten workers' members. Ten of the government members represent "states of chief industrial importance"—Canada, China, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, India, Italy, Japan, the USSR, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

The Governing Body elects the Director-General of the International Labor Office and approves the budget for adoption by the Conference. It determines policy and work programs, decides the Conference agenda (in so far as this is not fixed by the Conference itself), and supervises the work of the Office and of the various ILO committees and other bodies. The Governing Body appoints commit-

tees of its own to deal with particular problems. Elections to the Governing Body take place every three years.

The International Labor Office is the Organization's secretariat, research center, operational headquarters, and publishing house. It occupies a large building on the banks of the Lake of Geneva and is staffed by about 1,000 officials of some eighty nationalities. The Office has branches in Bonn, Buenos Aires, Cairo, London, Ottawa, Paris, Rio de Janeiro, Rome, Tokyo, and Washington; and field offices in Colombo, Dar-es-Salaam, Istanbul, Lagos, Lima, and Mexico City. It also has national correspondents in thirty-one countries. ILO maintains three liaison offices: with the United Nations in New York; with the United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America in Santiago, Chile; and with the United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East in Bangkok, Thailand.

Together, the Conference, the Governing Body, and the Office make up ILO. But ILO also acts through regional conferences, industrial committees, and other subsidiary bodies.

The first Director of ILO was Albert Thomas of France, 1919-32. His successors were: Harold Butler, of the United Kingdom, 1932-38; John Winant, of the United States, 1939-41, and Edward Phelan, of Ireland, 1941-48. Mr. Phelan was the first to carry the title of Director-General. The present Director-General is David A. Morse, of the United States, who has held the post since 1948.

Membership

The Constitution of ILO provides that a member of the United Nations may become a member of ILO by communicating to the Director-General "its formal acceptance of the obligations of the Constitution of the International Labour Organisation." Countries not members of the United Nations may be admitted to ILO by a two-thirds vote of the International Labor Conference.

As of March 31, 1963, 107 countries were members of ILO.

Budget

The ILO budget, adopted each year by the Conference, is based on contributions from member countries. The contributions are made according to a scale determined by the Conference.

The 1962 gross expenditure budget amounted to \$11,618,838. During that year ILO expenditures for technical cooperation activities under the United Nations Expanded Program of Technical Assistance, the United Nations Special Fund, the ILO regular budget, and funds-in-trust came to nearly \$9,500,000.

Activities

Standard Setting

One of the primary functions of ILO has always been to raise standards by building up a code of international law and practice. This remains true despite the many new directions into which the Organization's activities have extended since the end of the Second World War. Since the establishment of ILO in 1919, the International Labor Conference has adopted a total of 118 conventions and 117 recommendations. Taken together, these form the International Labor Code.

Each convention is a legal instrument regulating some aspect of labor administration, social welfare, or human rights; it is conceived as a model for national legislation. Member countries are not bound to ratify conventions even though they may have voted for their adoption. But they are obliged, under the ILO Constitution, to bring all conventions adopted by the Conference to the attention of their legislative authorities. If a Convention is ratified, the ratifying country has to report periodically to ILO on its implementation. Similarly, member countries must report from time to time on their position with respect to unratified conventions and also with respect to the recommendations, which, although not subject to ratification are adopted for the purpose of guiding governments.

Ratifications of ILO conventions continued to progress rapidly in 1962, the total number of ratifications increasing from 2,452 to 2,696 during the year. Forty-four of the new ratifications were of Human Rights Conventions, the breakdown being: conventions against forced labor, fifteen; conventions against discrimination, eleven; freedom of association conventions, eighteen.

Technical Cooperation

ILO's activities in the important area of technical cooperation have expanded greatly in recent years and now account for more than half of the work of the Organization. Before the Second World War, it was not unusual for ILO to send advisory missions to help governments with specific labor or social problems. But the present overall program is of unprecedented range and complexity.

The biggest growth in 1962 was in projects carried out under the Special Fund. By the end of that year, a total of thirty-five Special Fund projects had been assigned to the ILO. Of these, twenty were already in operation. The total Special Fund allocation for the thirty-five projects is nearly \$30 million, the actual expenditures to be spread over periods of from three to five years. With government counterpart contributions, the total of the sums involved will be in the neighborhood of \$73 million. Under the Expanded Program of Technical

Assistance, ninety-one countries received help from ILO in the two-year period 1961-62. These projects called for a total expenditure of \$7,523,886. Total expenditures for technical assistance under the ILO regular budget program came to \$640,558 in 1962. Projects carried out under funds-in-trust entailed an expenditure of \$180,000.

The regional distribution of ILO technical assistance in 1962 was estimated at: Asia, 32.8 per cent; Africa, 21.4 per cent; Latin America, 20.8 per cent; Near and Middle East, 14.2 per cent; Europe, 9.9 per cent; and, interregional, 0.9 per cent. Technical assistance is given in the following main fields: manpower organization, including vocational training; productivity and management development; co-operation and small-scale industries and handicrafts; social security; and labor conditions and administration.

Many of ILO's newer projects are in the fields of rural development and of management development and training for productivity.

The rural development program, initiated in response to a resolution adopted by the International Labor Conference in 1960, is designed to make a "massive impact" on the problem of raising incomes and levels of living in rural parts of developing countries. Initial operations include pilot projects in rural employment promotion, practical research, and the convening of technical and expert meetings.

The main object of the management development program is to spread modern management techniques in developing countries and to promote a better understanding of personnel administration needs and methods and a progressive outlook toward labor-management relations. ILO is carrying out, or is about to embark upon, management development programs under the Special Fund and under the expanded program in twenty-seven countries.

ANDEAN INDIAN PROGRAM

To some extent, the Andean Indian Program epitomizes the range and variety of ILO operational activity throughout the less developed regions of the world: it is here, on the high plateau of the Andes, that many of the strands come together to form a coordinated whole; it is here that, joining forces with the governments concerned and with other organizations of the United Nations family, ILO has set a goal involving nothing less than the ultimate transformation of the way of life of some seven million Indians living in Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, and Peru. The Andean Indian Program aims to integrate these peoples into the national life of the countries to which they belong, to give them hope for the future, and to enable their governments to put to use the full strength of their untapped human resources. Still one of the largest and most comprehensive multi-agency projects ever attempted, the Andean Indian

Program embraces health, education, agriculture, and social services. ILO acts as coordinating agency in cooperation with the United Nations, FAO, WHO, and UNESCO. In recent months, important steps have been taken to transfer executive responsibility for the further implementation of the Program to the national authorities of the countries concerned, and to ensure that all activities covered by the Program are carried out within the framework of national economic development plans.

In 1962, the Andean Indian Program was reviewed by the ILO's Panel of Consultants on Indigenous and Tribal Populations, which held that the experience gained in the Andes could be made to benefit other areas, particularly in the Middle East, Asia, and Africa.

Other Activities

Side by side with its standard-setting work and its broad programs of technical assistance, ILO has continued to expand its traditional research and publishing activities. Two of ILO's ten Industrial Committees—the Chemical Industries Committee and the Metal Trades Committee—held sessions during 1962. Other meetings convened by ILO during 1962 included the African Advisory Committee, the Tenth International Conference of Labor Statisticians, the Tripartite Technical Meeting for the Printing and Allied Trades, the Committee of Social Security Experts, and the Committee on Conditions of Work in the Fishing Industry. ILO's fifth Asian Regional Conference was held in Melbourne, Australia from November 26 to December 7.

The *International Labor Review*, published monthly by ILO, continues to appear in an expanded form. The statistical supplement to the *Review* contains, among other things, data on employment, unemployment, consumer prices, wages, hours of work, and occupational articles on special statistical problems. ILO publishes, every two months, a collection of labor laws and regulations from many countries in its *Legislative Series*. ILO's *Year Book of Labor Statistics* is published at the end of each year. During 1962, the Public Information Division of ILO brought out the first three issues of a new illustrative quarterly magazine, *ILO News*.

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR LABOR STUDIES

The International Labour Organisation's newly established International Institute for Labor Studies at Geneva is designed to serve as an advanced staff college in social and labor policy. The first study course was held in the autumn of 1962 with twenty-nine participants from twenty-eight countries taking part. The central theme of the course was the labor force and its employment. The Institute is financed mainly by an endowment fund dependent on contributions, gifts, lega-

cies, and grants. By the end of 1962, thirty-seven countries had made or pledged contributions. Various donations had also been made by employers' and workers' organizations and by private institutions and persons. The total contributions and pledges amounted to more than \$3 million. The Director of the Institute is Hilary A. Marquand, of the United Kingdom.

International Labor Conference

At its forty-sixth session in June 1962, the International Labor Conference adopted two new conventions—one concerning equality of treatment of nationals and non-nationals in social security, the other concerning basic aims and standards of social policy. It also adopted two new recommendations—one concerning reduction of hours of work (including the forty-hour week as a social standard to be reached, by stages if necessary), the other concerning vocational training. In addition, it adopted a constitutional amendment to increase the size of the ILO Governing Body from forty to forty-eight members. This amendment will become effective when ratified or adopted by two-thirds of the Organisation's member countries, including five of the countries that are members of the Governing Body as being "states of chief industrial importance".

FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS (FAO)

Origin

The United Nations Conference on Food and Agriculture, which met in the United States at Hot Springs, Virginia, in May 1943, established an interim commission, which drew up a draft constitution. When this document had been accepted by more than twenty governments, the first session of the Food and Agriculture Conference met at Quebec, Canada, and the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) came into being on October 16, 1945.

Functions

The founder nations of FAO expressed the wish to raise levels of nutrition and standards of living, to improve production and distribution of agricultural products, and to better the condition of rural populations.

To help members reach these goals, FAO:

(a) provides an intelligence service, including not only facts and figures relating to nutrition, agriculture, forestry, and fisheries, but also appraisals and forecasts of production, distribution, and consumption in these fields;

(b) promotes national and international action to improve production, marketing, processing, and distribution of the products of agriculture (including fisheries and forestry), conservation of natural resources, and credit and commodity arrangement policies; and

(c) furnishes to members, on request and largely through the United Nations Expanded Program of Technical Assistance, technical assistance in any of the above fields.

Organization

FAO works through a Conference, a Council, and a staff headed by a Director-General.

The Conference is the policy-making body, in which each member state has one vote. The Conference normally meets biennially.

Between sessions of the Conference, the Council supervises the work of FAO, reviews the world food and agricultural situation, and makes recommendations to member governments and to international bodies on measures to improve this situation. The Council is composed of representatives of twenty-seven member governments elected by the Conference.

The staff, or secretariat, is headed by a Director-General chosen by the Conference. The Director-General is Binay Ranjan Sen of India, who was re-elected to a four-year term in November 1959. Louis Maire of Switzerland was elected chairman of the Council.

The staff is organized into four departments: Technical, comprising agriculture, fisheries, forestry, and nutrition; Economics; Public Relations and Legal Affairs; and Administration and Finance. There is also a Program and Budgetary Service.

FAO's permanent headquarters is in Rome.

Regional offices are maintained at Washington for North America; Cairo for the Near East; Bangkok for Asia and the Far East, with a sub-office at New Delhi; Santiago, Chile for Latin America, with suboffices at Mexico City (for Northern Latin America and the Caribbean) and Rio de Janeiro (for Eastern Latin America); and Accra for Africa. A small office is maintained at Geneva to work with United Nations units there. A liaison office is maintained at United Nations Headquarters in New York.

By the end of 1962, forty-five member states had set up national FAO committees as points of contact between the organization and governmental and non-governmental agencies.

Membership

Original members of FAO are those nations which are listed in an annex to FAO's Constitution and which have accepted the Constitution. Additional members are admitted by a "vote concurred in by a two-thirds majority of all the members of the Conference and upon acceptance" of FAO's Constitution as in force at the time of admission.

As of January 1963, FAO had 100 states in full membership and four in associate membership.

Budget

The budget is fixed on a biennial basis. The global amount for the 1960-61 biennium was \$18,980,050; for the 1962-63 biennium, \$31,185,000. In addition to the regular budget, FAO receives a share of the funds of the United Nations Expanded Program of Technical Assistance. In 1962, this share was \$9,400,000.

Activities

FAO is an advisory and consultative organization of governments seeking to increase food supplies and other agricultural products and improve their distribution throughout the world.

The most important developments during 1962 were the increase in United Nations Special Fund projects for which FAO is the executing agency, the proposals for use of surplus food in the development of less advanced countries, and the response to the Freedom from Hunger Campaign.

By December 31, 1962, FAO had been named executing agency for more than 110 Special Fund projects with a total cost of approximately \$180 million, half to be provided by the Special Fund and half by recipient governments in funds and other resources. FAO has about 330 technical assistance experts working under the Special Fund.

Following the resolution of the United Nations General Assembly of October 28, 1960 on use of food surpluses for the economic and social development of developing countries, a report was prepared by the Director-General of FAO. This subsequently led to the establishment of the World Food Program, jointly administered by the United Nations and FAO. Mr. A. H. Boerma, former Assistant Director-General in charge of FAO's Program and Budgetary Service, has been appointed Executive Director. At a pledging conference in New York on September 5, 1962, member nations agreed to contribute some

million in cash, commodities, and services to start the three-year experimental program. Exploratory missions have visited various under-developed countries to study possible food aid projects (*see page 195*).

Over fifty countries participate in the Freedom from Hunger Campaign—an intensification of FAO's program which is running from 1960-65—and have national Freedom from Hunger Campaign Committees. Contributions exceed \$1.5 million and non-governmental groups and industrial concerns in all parts of the world are actively supporting the Campaign. The Campaign includes the world-wide Fertilizer Program, supported by the fertilizer industry, and a broad variety of programs for individual regions.

World Food Situation

Preliminary estimates suggest there was a pause in the expansion of world agricultural production in 1961-62, caused mainly by widespread bad weather. The pause, if confirmed by final figures, would be the first since 1957-58. With the world population continuing to rise, production on a per capita basis, without figures for China (mainland), shows a small decline in 1961-62 from 1960-61.

Agricultural production increased by four per cent in Latin America, by two per cent in eastern Europe and the USSR, and by one per cent in Oceania and the Far East. In other regions there was a decline: in North America by one per cent, in western Europe by one per cent, in the Near East by two to three per cent, and in Africa by three per cent. In China (mainland), floods, droughts, and pests are reported to have reduced production for the third consecutive year, and there have been further large imports of grains.

Over the past decade, world agricultural production increased at an average annual rate of about 2.9 per cent, and population by 1.8 per cent. This places per capita agricultural production at about ten per cent higher than before the Second World War. Food production in the more developed regions rose by fifty-six per cent and in the less developed regions by fifty-four per cent. However, on a per capita basis, most of the improvement was in the more developed regions because the more rapid population growth in the less developed regions largely offset production gains.

A comparison of per capita food production in the prewar period with the average for the three years 1959-60, 1960-61, and 1961-62 shows that the increase in western Europe was twenty per cent, in eastern Europe and USSR, forty-six per cent, and in North America, sixteen per cent. In Oceania, there was a decrease of five per cent. The average for the four more developed regions showed an increase in per capita food production of twenty-nine per cent. But in less developed regions—Latin America, the Far East, and Africa—per capita

food production changed little. In the Near East, however, it was eleven per cent higher.

Economics

Almost before FAO had begun its work, food shortages in many countries resulting from the Second World War led the Director-General to call a special meeting on urgent food problems. The meeting was held at Washington in May 1946. The International Emergency Food Council (IEFC), formed at that time, was absorbed by FAO in 1948; some of its work, however, has been continued by various committees of the FAO Council, especially by the Committee on Commodity Problems, which meets twice a year to examine the economic situation and prospects for each major agricultural commodity and to consider related governmental policies and actions.

Between 1952 and 1955 agricultural production expanded to the point where world shortages of food generally disappeared, and the attention of some governments began to focus more on finding adequate markets for the surplus food they were producing.

Analysis of world markets in 1962 showed that the existence of ample supplies of most products tended to depress prices and there was hardly any increase in the value of world agricultural trade. The ability of agricultural exports to buy manufactured goods in trade fell by more than six per cent, the seventh successive year of decline in terms of trade for agricultural exports. World agricultural stocks were also reduced, especially for wheat and coarse grains. However, stocks of coffee, soybeans, butter, and cheese increased.

Agriculture

FAO pays special attention to the development of basic natural resources, the application of improved methods of production and processing, the training of technicians at all levels, the improvement of the institutional framework of agriculture, and the establishment of basic governmental services.

General activities, involving several aspects of one subject, are exemplified by work of the International Rice Commission, under which cooperative work is now being carried out in plant breeding; use of fertilizers; soil, plant, and water relationships; mechanization; and processing.

Research in the use of atomic energy in agriculture—in plant or animal breeding, in food processing and conservation—is a new activity of FAO, which is carried out in close cooperation with IAEA. Recent work has been concerned with the application of radioisotopes and radiation in animal physiology—with special reference to animal nutrition—and with the collection of information on breeds and types

of cattle originating in Europe, as well as on buffaloes and on breeds of cattle developed in the Americas. Information has also been collected and distributed on comparable methods of performance testing of poultry.

Land and Water Development

FAO places great emphasis on the integrated development of land and water resources.

At present the Land and Water Development Division is responsible for forty-four United Nations Special Fund projects, which ultimately will employ more than 300 experts. A typical development was the discovery of artesian water in 1962 during a ground water survey of the Jezireh of Syria. Another project is the use of solar energy in food processing, also in Syria.

The fertilizer program is a striking example of the Division's work in the Freedom from Hunger Campaign. Nearly 2,000 demonstrations and trials have been conducted in four Near East and North African countries, nearly 4,000 in western Africa, and 500 in northern Latin America.

The world soil map project, now well under way, was highlighted in 1962 by two meetings in USSR to study soil maps of eastern and western Europe and Asia.

A six-week watershed management seminar and tour in 1962 studied the ways European countries use land and water resources. Later in the year the first watershed management training program for the Near East was held in Lebanon.

Plant Production and Protection

Promotion of plant breeding programs receives much attention, especially in regard to rice in the Far East, corn in Europe, and wheat and barley in the Near East.

In 1962, the war against pests and parasites produced the first Plant Protection Meeting for the Near East, the first FAO Technical Meeting on Coconut Production, Protection and Processing, and a special meeting on Desert Locust Control in eastern Africa. Anti-locust operations on the Arabian peninsula and other territories wasted by the plague have been intensified.

The FAO World Seed Campaign, in which seventy-nine countries and territories participated, terminated in the Technical Meeting on Seed Production, Control, and Distribution.

Animal Production and Health

Strengthening of veterinary services in member countries is one of FAO's main activities, with emphasis on control or eventual eradication of

the major epizootic diseases, which have posed a new threat to the livestock industries in several areas. FAO and the International Office of Epizootics maintain a world reporting service on animal diseases—which operates from FAO headquarters—and a European Commission for the Control of foot-and-mouth disease.

Joint surveys were undertaken by FAO and UNICEF in 1962 to assist in development of milk plants in Europe, Africa, Latin America, and Asia. Trainees from most of the Far Eastern countries attended courses held in India with the cooperation of the Danish and Indian Governments. A similar dairy training center for Latin America was organized in Chile.

Rural Institutions

Agricultural credit facilities, farmers' cooperatives, rural industries, and rural welfare in general get special attention from FAO. Agrarian reform was specially emphasized in 1962. Surveys on land reform and settlement plans were carried out in selected countries of Asia, Africa, and Latin America.

Nutrition

A joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Nutrition has met periodically since 1949 to coordinate the work of the two organizations and to advise on future plans. Surveys of nutrition conditions have been made in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. Efforts have been made to improve home economics teaching and development of extension programs. A Home Economics Information Exchange assists teachers. From villages to colleges, important programs of applied nutrition and nutrition training were conducted in 1962 in Africa and India, in cooperation with WHO and UNICEF.

Fisheries

FAO helps the development of the world's fisheries through studies aimed at uniformity of methods and terminology, by collecting and analyzing information of fishery resources, and by compiling world statistical summaries.

FAO advises governments on problems of rearing, catching, handling, processing, and marketing fish, and improving fishing boats and gear. Important meetings during 1962 were the World Meeting on the Biology of Tuna and Related Species, La Jolla, Calif.; Seminar and Study Tour of Fishing Methods and Fishing Gear Technology, Moscow and other parts of the USSR; tenth session of the Indo-Pacific Fisheries Council and Symposium on the Mechanization of Fishing Fleets, Seoul, South Korea; and the second meeting of European Inland Fisheries Advisory Commission, Paris.

Principal publications were handbooks on *Preliminary Fishery Surveys in Developing Countries* and on *Fish Culture in the Indo-Pacific Region*, and *Requirements and Improvements of Fishery Statistics in the North Atlantic Region*.

Forestry

Forests represent renewable resources whose development is one of FAO's major responsibilities. Activities include the appraisal of the nature and extent of existing forests and scientific study and rational use of wood consumption and requirements.

FAO publishes an annual *Yearbook of Forest Products Statistics*, and in 1958 published the *World Forest Inventory*, the third in a series of quinquennial world forest surveys. Starting with a study *European Timber Trends and Prospects*, an analysis of world wood resources and requirements is being built up, region by region.

A meeting on Pulp and Paper Development in Asia and the Far East, held in Tokyo in 1960, found that there was sufficient raw material to provide for needs up to 1975, but major changes in forest policies would have to be made to meet needs fifty years hence.

Preliminary findings suggesting a temporary excess capacity of paper and board for western Europe were disclosed at a meeting in 1962 of contributors to the Special Study of Pulp and Paper Trends and Development Prospects in Europe.

Other 1962 meetings included the first technical session of the newly formed International Wood Research Society. Preparations were made for FAO's fifth Conference on Wood Technology to take place in Madison, Wisconsin in August 1963.

Technical Assistance

Since the United Nations Expanded Program of Technical Assistance started in 1951, FAO has completed more than 2,500 assignments. During 1962, the organization was at work on more than 550 projects in 100 countries.

More than 300 fellowships were awarded in 1961 and about 450 in 1962. By the end of 1962 the total of fellowships awarded since the plan began had reached 2,873. The awards enable scientists and technicians in less developed countries to take further training in technically advanced countries.

Under the expanded program, FAO experts have advised governments, at their request, on animal disease control, animal and plant breeding, plant production and protection, statistical problems, marketing, and agricultural and forestry programs.

In Latin America, FAO experts have helped in drafting forest legislation, establishing or strengthening national forest services, ex-

panding research, finding new uses and outlets for forest products, and opening up forest resources. With FAO assistance a forestry school has been established in Chile, and a Latin American forest research and training institute has been started in Venezuela. FAO missions have investigated pulp and paper production in a number of countries, and have explored the possibility of developing Amazon forest resources.

Regional projects have included those on locust control in the Arabian peninsula and in Central America and rice improvement in the Far East. In projects under the Central American Integration Scheme, experts are appointed for specific jobs, such as, for example, cotton production and slaughterhouse improvement.

Publications

In addition to regular yearbooks, periodicals, and bulletins, FAO publications in 1962 included: *Food Additive Control in Denmark*; *Timber Trends and Prospects in the Asia-Pacific Region*; *Cooperation for Fishermen*; *Annual Review of World Production, Consumption and Trade of Fertilizers, 1960*; *Trends and Forces of World Sugar Consumption*; *Agriculture in Ethiopia*; *Man and Hunger* (revised edition); *Agricultural and Horticultural Seeds*; *Cost and Earnings Investigations of Primary Fishing Countries*; *Land Reform in Italy*; *Agricultural Commodities and the European Common Market*; *Agricultural Commodities Projections for 1970*; *Manual on Household Food Consumption Surveys*; and *Forest Seed Directory, 1961*.

UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION (UNESCO)

Origin

A conference for the establishment of an educational, scientific and cultural organization of the United Nations met in London from November 1 to 16, 1945, and drew up the Constitution of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). It also established a Preparatory Educational, Scientific and Cultural Commission to function until the organization came into being on November 4, 1946, when its Constitution was formally accepted by twenty of its signatories.

Functions

The purpose of UNESCO, as defined in its Constitution, is to "contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the

nations through education, science and culture in order to further universal respect for justice, for the rule of law, and for the human rights and fundamental freedoms for all".

Therefore, UNESCO's assignment is to stimulate educational, scientific, and cultural progress, and to encourage international cooperation in these fields by assisting member states and serving as a clearing-house to make pertinent material readily available to them.

Organization

UNESCO works through a General Conference, an Executive Board, and a secretariat.

The General Conference, consisting of representatives from each member state, convenes every two years to formulate policies and to approve the program and budget for the next two years. The last General Conference met at Paris in November 1962.

An Executive Board is elected by the General Conference to oversee the program. This Board, made up of thirty members who are responsible to their governments, meets two or three times a year.

The secretariat is responsible for executing the program. It is headed by a Director-General proposed by the Executive Board and appointed by the Conference. The present Director-General is René Maheu, of France. Previous Directors-General have been Julian Huxley, of the United Kingdom, 1946-48, Jaime Torres Bodet, of Mexico, 1948-52, Luther H. Evans, of the United States, 1953-58, and Vittorino Veronese of Italy, 1958-61. John W. Taylor, of the United States, served as Acting Director-General on an interim appointment from November 1952 to July 1953.

National Commissions, composed of representatives of the government and of non-governmental organizations in each of the member states, link UNESCO with the educational, scientific, and cultural life in each country and assist in carrying out UNESCO's program.

UNESCO headquarters are in Paris, France.

Membership

Membership in the United Nations carries with it the right to membership in UNESCO. States not members of the United Nations may be admitted to membership of UNESCO, upon recommendation of the Executive Board, by a two-thirds majority vote of the General Conference, provided that the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations has not recommended the rejection of their application for membership.

As of December 1962, UNESCO had 113 member states and two

associate members. Associate members of UNESCO enjoy the same rights in the organization as full members, except they cannot vote at the General Conference or hold office on the Executive Board.

Budget

A budget of \$39 million was approved for UNESCO's activities for the two years 1963 and 1964. In addition, for this same period, the organization was allocated more than \$13 million for technical assistance projects as its share of the United Nations expanded program of technical assistance. By the end of 1962, UNESCO was also serving as executing agency for twenty-six United Nations Special Fund projects.

Activities

UNESCO's program is carried out in member states only at the request of governments, and with their cooperation. UNESCO can only make recommendations; no nation is bound to follow them.

UNESCO's program has two main aspects; permanent activities of general interest to all member states, such as the exchange of information and documentation, assistance to international non-governmental organizations, and the preparation of international conventions; and special activities designed to deal with specific problems in particular states.

Major Projects

The 1956 General Conference held at New Delhi launched three major projects, which the Organization would work on for a period of up to ten years.

MAJOR PROJECT ON THE EXTENSION AND IMPROVEMENT OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN LATIN AMERICA

In 1957 UNESCO published a survey called *World Illiteracy at Mid-Century*, which showed that in 1950 approximately 700 million persons, or about 44 per cent of the world's adult population, were completely illiterate, while 65 per cent were functionally illiterate, that is, unable to read and write well enough to participate actively in a literate community. In Latin America, particularly in rural areas, about half the adults were illiterate, and seventeen million children lacked schools.

Following a twelve-nation conference in Havana, Cuba, in 1957, UNESCO established a far-reaching program to increase primary school

enrollment and improve curricula. With the help of the participating governments, a teacher-training program was established, research programs undertaken, and regional conferences on basic educational planning held. After five years, primary school enrollment had increased 18.6 per cent in sixteen countries, and enrollment in general was increasing at a pace faster than population growth.

MAJOR PROJECT ON SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH IN ARID LANDS

It is estimated that the arid and semi-arid regions of the world make up more than a third of the land surface. Because of the pressure of increasing populations, it is becoming more urgent that parched and treeless lands should be brought back to life and the spread of deserts checked. Governments in many countries are giving this problem high priority.

UNESCO's work in this field is twofold: first, to make available expert knowledge gained from the many experiments and projects carried out all over the world; and, second, to help in the development and expansion of desert research stations. Eight stations—in Algeria, West Africa, India, Israel, the United Arab Republic, and the United States—have now been linked directly to UNESCO's program of research development, coordinating research with UNESCO, accepting visiting scientists and fellowship holders, and exchanging workers with institutions carrying out similar activities.

MAJOR PROJECT ON MUTUAL APPRECIATION OF EASTERN AND WESTERN CULTURAL VALUES

One of the obstacles to creating confidence and good will in the international field is the gulf that separates the peoples of the West and the East. With the extension of technology from the Occident to the Orient in past decades, knowledge of the former's history and ideas is much more widespread among oriental peoples than oriental culture is among the peoples of the West.

To remedy this situation UNESCO has, since 1957, launched programs fostering international discussions, social science studies, school and out-of-school education, lecture tours of eminent intellectuals, dissemination in translation of contemporary literary works of various peoples, use of information media, and the exchange of students, teachers, artists, and specialists.

Education

Today, about 250 million children—almost half the world's children—do not go to school. UNESCO's current program emphasizes the pri-

ority given to education. In this field, UNESCO assists member states in the improvement of programs of teacher-training and curricula development, in developing methods for the teaching of science and modern languages, and in the use of audio-visual aids.

UNESCO has begun a special effort to help the development of primary education in Asia. The ultimate goal is to provide every child in the area with primary schooling by 1980. This twenty-year program includes the creation of a regional education office, of regional centers for research in school building construction, and the training of school administrators. In the Arab states, UNESCO's main assistance concerns the development of a network of associated teacher-training colleges.

Most of the organization's recent members are newly-independent African states. As a result, UNESCO is increasing its activities on that continent. Current projects include the creation of centers for the training of teachers, the operation of a regional office for educational research, the organization of training courses for senior personnel, and general assistance to secondary education, to universities, and to adult education.

Out-of-school education is also of concern to UNESCO. The organization has provided assistance to community development projects, and has established two teacher-training centers in community development, one, with the cooperation of the Mexican Government and the Organization of American States, at Patzcuaro, Mexico, in 1951, to serve the Latin American countries, and another at Sirs-el-Layyan, in the United Arab Republic, in 1953, to serve the Arab countries.

In the field of human rights and the encouragement of education for international understanding, UNESCO's current emphasis is on the Convention and Recommendation for the Prevention of Discrimination in Education, adopted by the UNESCO General Conference in 1960. In ratifying this Convention, states undertake to ensure that there is no discrimination in schools and to promote equality of opportunity and of treatment for all in education.

EDUCATIONAL CLEARING HOUSE

The Educational Clearing House at UNESCO headquarters in Paris collects data from all member states on curricula, education statistics, and fellowships, scholarships, and teaching posts. The Clearing House also assembles material for the *World Survey on Education*, published triennially by UNESCO. The last volume, published in 1961, dealt with secondary schools in the 197 countries and territories in the world.

Natural Sciences

UNESCO's program in the field of natural sciences includes the promotion of international scientific cooperation, development of studies and

research relating to natural resources, and advancement of scientific teaching and dissemination of scientific knowledge. Regional activities relating to this program are carried out by the four UNESCO Science Cooperation Offices in Latin America, the Middle East, South Asia, and Southeast Asia.

The year 1960 marked the beginning of a ten-year plan of activities for UNESCO in the field of natural sciences which gives priority to the application of science and technology in the industrialization of developing countries, and also to the coordination of scientific activities on both the national and international levels. Highlights of this plan include natural resources surveys and research, in particular humid tropical zone research, geological and seismological surveys in the Mediterranean basin, the Andes, and the Far East, and completion of the current Major Project on Arid Zone Scientific Research, due to end in 1962.

In the field of marine sciences, UNESCO has set up an Intergovernmental Oceanography Commission, which seeks to augment, through concerted action of member states, knowledge of the oceans and their resources. The Commission is coordinating the International Indian Ocean Expedition, which includes twenty research vessels from fourteen nations and is considered the most important oceanographic research project ever undertaken.

One of the most successful achievements of UNESCO was helping several governments set up in 1952, the European Council for Nuclear Research (CERN), which maintains a research laboratory in Geneva, and which now has a larger operating budget than UNESCO. Here scientists from all over Europe cooperate in research on certain aspects of the peaceful uses of atomic energy.

Under the technical assistance program, UNESCO has helped governments set up national and regional scientific and technical documentation centers for the use of researchers and industries. Typical of these is the center in Mexico City, which was opened in 1951 and is now being operated by the Mexican Government. This center receives more than 5,000 scientific and technical periodicals, which are classified, translated into Spanish, summarized into abstracts, and circularized. Similar centers have been set up with UNESCO's help in India, Turkey, Uruguay, and Yugoslavia.

Social Sciences

UNESCO's current program in social sciences features two main themes: the teaching of social sciences and fundamental research methods, and the study of problems resulting from economic and social development. One of the latter is the effect of industrialization upon the lives of people, particularly in those countries where modern technical knowledge is now being introduced. With the aid of the Indian Gov-

ernment, a center to study the effects of industrialization in southern Asia is operating in New Delhi. Research is also conducted at UNESCO's Latin American Regional Center for Social Science Research at Rio de Janeiro.

Another aspect of UNESCO's social science program is the organization's work for the promotion of human rights and of international understanding, which is currently concentrating on the question of racism and its influence on modern youth.

UNESCO has published two series of books on racial problems: *The Race Question in Modern Science* and *The Race Question in Modern Thought*.

Cultural Activities

One of UNESCO's basic aims is to help extend knowledge and appreciation of cultural values to more people. Its work in this field covers several aspects: research in the humanities, dissemination of knowledge of art and literature, protection of cultural heritages, and development of museums and libraries. At present the most important of these activities is the International Campaign to save the Monuments of Nubia, artistic treasures of ancient Egypt which will be threatened by the rising waters of the Nile once the new Aswan Dam has been completed in the United Arab Republic.

To provide to artists, musicians, philosophers, and other intellectuals an opportunity for more fruitful interchanges, UNESCO has founded organizations such as the International Theatre Institute, the International Music Council, the International Council of Philosophy and Humanistic Studies, the International Sociological Association, and the International Political Science Association. These supplement already existing organizations such as the Pen Club, which also receive help from UNESCO.

UNESCO also assists in the production and distribution of reading materials for the new reading public created as a result of mass literacy campaigns. The "new literates"—adults and children—often tend to relapse into illiteracy for dearth of reading material.

In order to make the world's artistic treasures better known, UNESCO issues color reproductions of the world's great paintings, makes available albums which bring to the general public works of art little known outside their country of origin, and sponsors travelling exhibits of color reproductions, which are sent to member states for extensive tours of towns and villages.

The organization has been instrumental in obtaining two important international agreements in the cultural field. The first, the Universal Copyright Convention, which has been ratified by forty-five countries, protects artists and writers, as well as publishers, from piracy

in signatory nations. The second, the International Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict, has been ratified by some fifty countries which have pledged themselves to preserve cultural monuments and other art treasures in case of war.

Mass Communication

UNESCO's work in the field of mass communication has two basic functions: to promote the free flow of information and help develop communication media and techniques and to increase the supply and circulation of information which promotes mutual understanding among the peoples of the world.

Fundamental to the latter task is dissemination of information about the purpose and program of UNESCO and of the entire United Nations family. Thus, UNESCO assists press, film, radio, and television reporting and also produces varied information materials, such as *The UNESCO Courier*, now appearing in eight languages—English, French, Spanish, Russian, German, Italian, Arabic, and Japanese.

UNESCO has recently carried out, in its promotion of the free flow of information, a world survey on the problems of providing technical assistance in building up information media in the less developed countries. The survey showed that seventy per cent of the world does not possess a "bare minimum" of ten copies of daily newspapers, five radio receivers, and two cinema seats per 100 persons. It served as the basis for an information media development plan which has been approved by the Economic and Social Council.

Another aspect of this program has been the organization's efforts to enlist governmental support for two UNESCO agreements intended to eliminate, for information materials, customs barriers between countries. At the end of 1962, forty countries adhered to the Agreement on the Importation of Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Materials, while fifteen countries adhered to the Agreement for Facilitating International Circulation of Visual and Auditory Materials of an Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Character. In addition, the organization seeks, under its Coupon Scheme, to eliminate currency obstacles to the importation of books, films, and scientific apparatus. The equivalent of \$10 million in coupons was issued in 1962 under this scheme, which was being applied by thirty-one countries at the end of that year.

In the development and improvement of mass communication techniques, UNESCO concentrates its action on the expansion of journalism training facilities, the use of audio-visual aids in education, and mass media research. UNESCO operates two international centers for higher studies in journalism, at Strasbourg, France, and at Quito, Ecuador.

International Exchange Service

The promotion of travel abroad for educational, scientific, and cultural purposes is an essential element in UNESCO's work to develop greater international understanding and a more effective sharing of knowledge and skills among its member states. Under this heading, UNESCO provides information and advice on exchange programs through the operation of the Clearing House (mentioned above), and through its publications. Among the publications are *Study Abroad*, an annual review containing information on approximately 115,000 individual opportunities for study abroad through fellowships, scholarships, and educational exchanges and *Vacations Abroad*, an annual guide to more than 1,500 short-term educational opportunities, such as study courses, educational tours, and work camps, in more than seventy-five countries.

UNESCO also administers a fellowship program which provides awards for foreign study and training, linked to projects related to UNESCO's own activities. During 1962, for instance, 1,500 awards were made, half for fellowships and the remainder for study and travel grants.

Finally, the organization sponsors special exchange projects for teachers, as well as for members of workers', youth, and women's organizations. UNESCO helps to place university teachers in institutions abroad and operates a group study tour scheme for workers whose organizations apply for grants covering travel fares for vacations abroad. Nearly 8,000 European workers, from more than twenty countries and representing some forty different professions, have traveled under this scheme. Current emphasis in this program is on its extension to Asia, Africa, the Middle East, and Latin America.

Technical Assistance, UNESCO Participation, and Special Fund Programs

During 1962 UNESCO had 300 specialists in the field, sent out under the United Nations expanded program of technical assistance as well as under UNESCO's own program of participation in the activities of member states. The participation program, which is part of UNESCO's regular program of technical aid financed from UNESCO's own budget, covers field activities under this regular program.

The main fields of UNESCO activity under the expanded program are: the extension and modernization of educational facilities at all levels; the improvement of science teaching methods; assistance to scientific research, to technical documentation services, and to community development projects; and the development of social science teaching and of mass communication services. Aid in the same fields of activity was provided under the participation program; in addition,

however, assistance was given for projects promoting international understanding and cooperation in the social sciences; the preservation of cultural property; the teaching of arts and crafts; library and museum development; and mutual appreciation of cultural values of the East and West.

WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION (WHO)

Origin

The founding of the World Health Organization (who) goes back to a proposal made at the United Nations Conference on International Organization in San Francisco in 1945; the proposal envisaged the creation of a specialized institution in the field of health.

In June and July 1946, at an international health conference held in New York, representatives of sixty-four countries drafted and signed the Constitution of who and established an interim commission composed of representatives of eighteen governments. This commission carried on the most urgent health work previously undertaken by such bodies as the League of Nations Health Organization, the Office International d'Hygiène Publique, and UNRRA, and prepared for the establishment of who as a permanent organization.

On April 7, 1948 the who Constitution came into force after twenty-six members of the United Nations had ratified it. Since then, throughout the world, April 7 of each year has been celebrated as World Health Day.

Functions

The objective of who is "the attainment by all peoples of the highest possible level of health", and health, as defined in the who Constitution is "a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity". WHO accordingly has a wide range of functions, including the following:

- to act as the directing and coordinating authority on international health work;

- to stimulate and advance work to eradicate epidemic, endemic, and other diseases;

- to promote improved standards of teaching and training in the health, medical, and related professions;

- to establish and stimulate establishment of international standards with respect of biological, pharmaceutical, and similar products, and to standardize diagnostic procedures; and

- to foster activities in the field of mental health, especially those affecting the harmony of human relations.

Organization

The main organs of who are the World Health Assembly, the Executive Board, six regional committees, and the secretariat.

The World Health Assembly, the supreme governing body, meets each year and is composed of national delegations of all member states. It determines the policies and programs of who and votes the budget.

The Executive Board, a technical and non-political organ, is made up of twenty-four persons designated by as many member states elected by the Health Assembly. It meets at least twice a year to give effect to the decisions of the Assembly.

Who's headquarters are at Geneva, Switzerland, but the activities of the organization have been largely decentralized to six regional organizations, each having a regional committee composed of government representatives of the countries in the region and a regional office.

The secretariat, under the direction of a Director-General, comprises the technical and administrative personnel of the organization; current work is entrusted to this staff of about 2,000 persons from more than sixty different countries, working at who's headquarters, in regional offices, and field projects throughout the world. The Director-General is Dr. M. G. Candau, of Brazil.

Who has regional offices at New Delhi for South-East Asia; at Alexandria for the Eastern Mediterranean; at Manila for the Western Pacific; at Washington for the Americas (Pan American Sanitary Bureau); at Brazzaville for Africa; and at Copenhagen for Europe.

Membership

Membership in who is open to all states. Members of the United Nations join who by accepting its Constitution. Other states become who members when the World Health Assembly has approved their application by a simple majority vote. Territories which are not responsible for the conduct of their international relations may become associate members.

As of February 1963, who had 116 member states and two associate members.

Budget

The regular budget of who for 1963 is about \$30 million. To this should be added a planned expenditure of about \$1.5 million from

the voluntary contributions to the Malaria Eradication Special Account and an estimated \$7.5 million from United Nations technical assistance funds.

Activities

Malaria Eradication

Since the eighth World Health Assembly in Mexico City in 1955, who has been engaged in a world-wide campaign to root out malaria, a disease to which more than 1,400 million people were exposed. Great progress has been made in the campaign. In 1962, for example, a further 160 million people were freed from the threat of the disease. At the end of the year, however, there were still 377 million people living in malarious areas where no eradication program has been started.

Tuberculosis

In many countries a double attack on the tubercle bacillus is being pursued with who assistance by using powerful new drugs and by continuing large-scale BCG vaccination campaigns to prevent tuberculosis. In combination, these two actions offer the possibility of eliminating tuberculosis as a major public health problem in most countries. WHO helped to develop a heat-stable freeze-dried BCG vaccine giving consistently better results than the earlier fluid vaccine. In 1962, some twenty-five countries with a combined population of about 750 million received who assistance for their tuberculosis control activities.

Venereal Diseases

An increase in the incidence of syphilis and gonorrhea in at least thirty countries was revealed in a who survey completed in 1962. This increase is considered to be due to increased transmission as well as to the development of penicillin-resistant strains of the disease agents concerned. WHO has recommended minimum standards for the management of venereal infections, which are being accepted by an increasing number of national health administrations.

Yaws

In internationally assisted campaigns against yaws, a crippling infection widespread in the tropics, 285 million people were examined and thirty-eight million treated between 1950 and 1962. Many of these campaigns are now passing from the stage of mass measures to that of surveillance to make sure that the disease does not start spreading again.

Veterinary Public Health

WHO has been active in developing a vaccine against brucellosis, an important disease of sheep and goats that is frequently transmitted to man. Search has also been continued for an efficient anti-rabies vaccine suitable for the immunization of human beings. Studies on animal influenza and related virus infections were actively pursued in collaborating laboratories in Czechoslovakia, the USSR, and the United States to determine whether an animal reservoir of human influenza viruses exists in nature. The results suggest that swine can catch certain influenza strains from man and that these strains may be reintroduced into human populations from time to time.

Virus Diseases

In 1961 efforts toward smallpox control and eradication were intensified in the three continents where the disease is still permanently installed.

Five hundred million people are probably infected with trachoma, and in areas where practically the whole population has this eye disease, one per cent of adults are totally blind and four per cent suffer from blindness rendering them economically dependent. WHO continued to support trachoma research and to give practical assistance to governments for control programs.

Bilharziasis

Bilharziasis is a disease contracted through contact with water infected with a tiny parasite that spends part of its life cycle in a water snail host. It is particularly common in irrigated areas of tropical countries. WHO surveys have confirmed that the disease is on the increase and is appearing in countries hitherto considered free of it. In field and laboratory trials in eight countries, a number of molluscicides are being tested for efficacy against the snail host.

Leprosy

Many of the deformities and disabilities caused by leprosy can be prevented by early diagnosis and treatment, yet not more than one-fifth of the world's estimated ten million leprosy sufferers are receiving treatment of any kind. WHO gives advice on the organization of up-to-date leprosy services and the application of existing knowledge on treatment and rehabilitation.

International Sanitary Regulations and International Quarantine

New international sanitary regulations codifying health measures applicable to ground, sea, and air travel were formulated by WHO in

1951. Effective October 1, 1952, they replaced all the health conventions previously in force. WHO administers these regulations and maintains a world-wide system of reception and distribution of notifications of quarantinable diseases, including a network of broadcasting stations relaying daily radio-telegraphic broadcasts from Geneva.

Environmental Health

In its efforts to improve community water supplies, WHO has provided teams of experts to advise a considerable number of countries on the technical aspects of national water supply programs and has continued to help train the various types of specialized personnel needed for the construction, operation, and maintenance of public water supplies.

A study has been undertaken on international standardization of methods and instruments for measuring air pollution, and an illustrated monograph on various aspects of air pollution has been published by WHO.

The development and evaluation of new insecticides suitable for use in disease control programs are of great importance for the success of malaria eradication and the control of other insect-borne diseases. WHO has set up a scheme of collaboration between the chemical industry and independent research institutes for this purpose and for undertaking basic research into the nature of insect resistance to insecticides.

Public Health Services

WHO is advising governments on the planning of public health services, sometimes as independent programs but often as part of a wider scheme of social and economic development. In many large development programs at community level in a number of countries, work on health, education, agricultural improvement, and other programs for economic and social development is coordinated.

Nursing

WHO is giving increasing help to enable countries to meet the pressing demand for more and better trained nursing and midwifery personnel and to improve their nursing education programs. The organization also assists in setting up postbasic and postgraduate nursing courses in many countries.

Health Education

Although health authorities are becoming more aware of the usefulness of health education in obtaining effective participation of the

people in health projects, progress is hampered by the shortage of professional health educators and lack of training facilities for them. In WHO-assisted field projects in nutrition, maternal and child health, school health, and environmental sanitation, as well as in malaria eradication programs, professional health educators are being increasingly used. WHO assistance is also given to national projects for improving health education in schools.

Maternal and Child Health

WHO's assistance concentrates on training personnel to staff health services for mothers and children, on surveying children's health needs, on controlling children's diseases, and on the problem of premature babies. Many programs are run in cooperation with UNICEF.

Cancer and Cardiovascular Diseases

In the Americas WHO has helped to plan a regional statistical study of cancer and cardiovascular and other chronic diseases. In the eastern Mediterranean region it is working on two new studies—on the comparative incidence of cancer among different ethnic groups in Israel, and on cancer incidence in different parts of the body and the relation of bilharziasis to bladder cancer in the United Arab Republic. In Ireland the effect of certain social factors and air pollution is being investigated in relation to lung cancer, and similar studies are going forward in Oslo and Helsinki.

WHO is also promoting research concerning the hitherto little-known factors that give rise to the major cardiovascular diseases. A necessary first step is to devise standardized methods and techniques to ensure comparability in international studies on the incidence of hypertension and certain types of heart disease.

Mental Health

A review of WHO's mental health program for the years 1949-60 shows the emphasis that has been laid on the preventive use of psychiatric knowledge, the development of psychiatric services, the necessity for education and training in matters connected with mental health, special problems of children, and problems of adults such as alcoholism, drug addiction, and old age. Work in these fields is being continued.

Nutrition

An all-important program for the development of protein-rich foods is being continued and reinforced in collaboration with FAO and UNICEF.

A survey of the existing facilities for training workers in nutrition has been undertaken by FAO and WHO in Africa, Latin America, and Southeast Asia.

Another joint undertaking of FAO and WHO deals with food additives, particularly those which may be connected with the occurrence of cancer or other health risks. Information on these problems is published periodically.

Education and Training

Shortages of health personnel, whether of doctors, nurses, sanitary engineers, laboratory technicians, or other workers, plague every country. WHO helps develop training schools and teaching staff for public health work. During 1962, nearly 2,000 fellowships were awarded for individual or group studies to health workers from 151 countries and territories.

In the Congo (Leopoldville) a special program has been set up to increase medical manpower by helping over 100 *assistants médicaux* to complete their medical training abroad. WHO is also assisting the medical faculty of Lovanium University near Leopoldville to train more medical students, and has provided the University with visiting professors.

Biology and Pharmacology

Two international laboratories, one in London, the other in Copenhagen, make samples of internationally standardized biological substances available to laboratories all over the world. These substances—hormones, vitamins, and antibiotics, among others—are too complex for their potency to be measured by ordinary chemical or physical means, so that experimental comparison with a recognized standard is needed. WHO has adopted international standards for about 100 such substances.

Narcotic Drugs

The control of narcotic drugs, which is governed by international treaties administered by international agencies, is one of the oldest examples of international cooperation in the social and economic fields (*see page 325*). WHO is required to advise the other international organs concerned on which drugs are liable to produce addiction. It also does much work in the treatment and rehabilitation of addicts and in the prevention of addiction.

Publications

The first *International Pharmacopoeia*, containing specifications of physical and chemical properties, identification tests, permissible limits

for impurities, and methods of assay for 199 pharmaceutical preparations, was published in 1951; a second volume with specifications for another 210 preparations appeared in 1955.

WHO publishes several periodicals including the *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, the *WHO Chronicle*, the *Epidemiological and Vital Statistics Report*, and the *International Digest of Health Legislation*. An illustrated periodical, *World Health*, is intended for the general public. The number of titles in the WHO technical report series, the series of monographs, and the public health papers now exceeds 300. The examples of titles that follow are chosen to indicate fields of WHO activity not mentioned elsewhere in this chapter: *Health Hazards of Ionizing Radiation*; *Accidents in Childhood*; *Manual of the International Statistical Classification of Diseases, Injuries and Causes of Death*; *Poliomyelitis*; *Report of the Expert Committee on Auxiliary Dental Personnel*; *Guide to Hygiene and Sanitation in Aviation*; *Specifications for Pesticides*; *Milk Hygiene*; and *Measurement of Levels of Health*.

INTERNATIONAL BANK FOR RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT (WORLD BANK, or IBRD)

Origin and Functions

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (World Bank, or IBRD) was founded at the Bretton Woods Monetary and Financial Conference in July 1944 and began operations in June 1946. The Bank is an international cooperative organization associated with the United Nations as a specialized agency. Its aim is to assist the economic development of its member countries and thus raise the standards of living of the peoples of the world. It makes loans for productive purposes to member governments, and to government agencies, or private enterprises under governmental guarantee.

Organization

All powers of the Bank are vested in the Board of Governors, which meets annually. The Board consists of one Governor and one Alternate appointed by each member. Each member state has 250 votes, plus one vote for each share of the capital stock it holds.

The Board of Governors has delegated most of its powers to eighteen Executive Directors, who meet several times a month at the Bank's headquarters in Washington. Five of the Directors are appointed by the five members having the largest number of shares of capital stock; the others are elected by the remaining members. The

Executive Directors function as a Board, and each Director is entitled to cast as a unit the aggregate number of votes of the member or members which he represents.

The President of the Bank is selected by the Executive Directors and also serves *ex officio* as their Chairman. Subject to the general direction of the Executive Directors on questions of policy, he is responsible for conducting the business of the Bank.

The Presidents of the Bank have been Eugene Meyer (June 18 to December 18, 1946); John J. McCloy (March 17, 1947 to June 30, 1949); Eugene R. Black (July 1, 1949 to December 31, 1962); and George D. Woods (January 1, 1963 to date).

The headquarters of the Bank are at 1818 H Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. Small offices are also maintained in Paris, New York, and London.

Membership

As of December 31, 1962, the Bank had eighty-one members.

Administrative Budget

The administrative expenses of the Bank are paid out of the Bank's income and are controlled through an administrative budget approved by the Executive Directors. The administrative budget for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1963 was approximately \$15.5 million.

Capital of the Bank

The authorized capital of the Bank, originally \$10,000 million, was increased in September 1959 to \$21,000 million. As of December 31, 1962, capital subscriptions of the Bank's eighty-one members totaled \$20,663 million.

Only one-tenth of the subscribed capital has actually been paid in. Most of the paid-in subscriptions are in national currencies and may be lent only with the consent of the member concerned. By December 31, 1962, funds available to the Bank for lending from subscriptions amounted to \$1,678 million. The majority of the Bank's lending funds, which now total nearly \$6.8 billion, have therefore come from other sources, mainly from borrowing in the capital markets of the world. The remaining 90 per cent of the Bank's capital is not available for lending but is subject to call only if required to meet outstanding obligations of the Bank.

Activities

Borrowing Operations

The Bank has been very active in selling its bonds in the world's capital markets. By December 31, 1962 the Bank's outstanding funded debt amounted to \$2,538 million, of which \$1,908 million was repayable in United States dollars, \$275 million in Deutsche marks, \$199 million in Swiss francs, \$50 million in pounds sterling, \$31 million in Canadian dollars, \$41 million in Netherlands guilders, \$24 million in Italian lire, and \$10 million in Belgian francs.

In addition to its direct borrowing, the Bank sells parts of its loans, and in recent years has been able to revolve an increasingly large proportion of its funds in this way. By December 31, 1962, the Bank had sold \$1,405 million of its loans, of which all but \$69 million were sold without guarantee.

Lending Operations

As of December 31, 1962, the Bank had made 333 loans, totaling \$6,701 million, in sixty-one countries or territories. Asia and the Middle East had received a total of \$2,235 million; Europe, \$1,498 million; the Americas, \$1,636 million; Africa, \$914 million; and Australia, \$418 million. India is the Bank's largest single borrower, with thirty loans totaling \$817 million.

Excluding \$497 million lent in 1947 for reconstruction in Europe, total lending, divided by purpose, is approximately as follows: \$2,148 million for transportation projects; \$2,277 million for electric power; \$1,034 million for industry; \$514 million for agriculture and forestry; \$27 million for communications; and \$205 million for general development.

Under its articles of agreement, the Bank is restricted to making loans for productive purposes which will assist in the reconstruction or development of its member states, where funds are not obtainable in the private market on reasonable terms. Loans are long term—ten to twenty-five years—and can be made only to member states, their political subdivisions, or to private enterprises located in the territories of members. Loans to borrowers other than governments must be guaranteed by the government in whose territory the project is located. Proceeds of loans are not tied to a particular source of supply; borrowers are free to use the proceeds to make purchases in any member country, or in Switzerland, which has established by agreement a special relationship with the Bank.

In order to ensure that its loans are sound and that they conform to the articles of agreement, the Bank applies businesslike banking practices to its investigations of loan applications. In addition, all

loan agreements specify the purposes for which the loan was made and, in most cases, the goods and services that may be purchased with the proceeds. Disbursements are made at the request of the borrower, who is required to furnish evidence that the money is to be used in payment or reimbursement for goods and services as agreed. The Bank also maintains supervision over the end-use of items purchased with its funds through actual inspection of projects and through periodic reports from engineers and others concerned with the progress of a project. The current rate of interest charged by the Bank is five and one-half per cent, including a one per cent annual commission credited to the Special Reserve.

Technical Assistance and Training

The Bank also provides advisory assistance to its member countries in various ways. General economic survey missions have been sent to twenty-two member countries at the request of their respective governments. Broadly, the objectives of these missions have been to help formulate a program of investment which would indicate priorities among the important sectors of the economy and among types of undertakings within each sector, to suggest means to improve productive efficiency in existing enterprises, and to recommend ways in which the government could facilitate further development. The reports of these missions are submitted to the governments concerned and published. The Bank on several occasions has lent members of its staff or recruited experts to serve for a time as advisers to member governments. In 1961 it established the Development Advisory Service to provide a permanent staff of trained development experts, available to meet requests from member governments. The Bank has often helped to find suitable persons to staff economic planning organizations and development banks.

The Bank finances and organizes numerous studies of a pre-investment nature. These studies range in purpose from a sector study designed to aid in the formulation of an investment program in a major field, such as power or transportation, to a project study to determine the feasibility of a particular project, such as a bridge or port facility. In another area of pre-investment assistance, the Bank, acting as executing agency, carries out a number of United Nations Special Fund surveys.

The Bank provides a system of training for officials from member countries. The Economic Development Institute (EDI)—the Bank's staff college—provides a six-month course of study each year for small groups of experienced officials from less developed member countries, whose daily work involves decisions on economic policy and the formulation and administration of development programs or projects. To supplement this course, which is given in English, EDI

provides a shorter course in French and is adding to its curriculum a similar course in Spanish. In addition, EDI offers a specialized course in project evaluation. To give broader experience to government officials of more junior level, the Bank also operates a general training course at its headquarters.

INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATION (IDA)

The International Development Association (IDA) was established in September 1960, as an affiliate of the World Bank, to promote economic development in the less developed areas of the world included within its membership. IDA provides finance on terms which are more flexible and bear less heavily on the balance of payments of recipient countries than do conventional loans. IDA has its own funds but its directors, officers, and staff are those of the Bank, serving *ex officio* with the Association. While the terms of IDA credits are much more lenient than those of the Bank, IDA uses the same high standards of project planning and execution when considering a credit operation.

Membership is open to all member countries of the World Bank, and by December 31, 1962, seventy-one countries had joined IDA.

Financial Activities and Resources

IDA's funds come from the subscriptions of its members. By the end of December 1962, the total subscriptions were \$947 million. For purposes of subscriptions, IDA members are divided into two groups: one group, consisting of the more highly developed members, pay their subscriptions over five years entirely in convertible form; the other and more numerous group, the less developed members which are eligible to borrow from IDA, pay only ten per cent of their subscriptions in convertible currency, the remaining 90 per cent being paid in national currency over five years, which IDA may use only with the consent of the member concerned. Of IDA funds subscribed by December 31, 1962, \$763 million was in convertible form. In addition, Sweden contributed an additional \$5.8 million in convertible form.

Activities

Credit Operations

By December 31, 1962, IDA had extended thirty-three development credits totaling \$367 million in seventeen countries. Twenty-one of the credits—\$271.3 million—went to countries in Asia and the Middle

East; Latin American countries received a total of \$70.4 million; Africa \$20.8 million; and Turkey \$5 million.

Transportation was the leading purpose of IDA lending, accounting for \$166.4 million. The next most important category was agriculture, mainly irrigation, for which credits totaling \$92.2 million were extended. Credits of \$36 million for electric power, \$42 million for telecommunications, \$16.5 million for industry, \$9.4 million for municipal water supply, and \$5 million for school construction, made up the balance.

All IDA credits have been for a term of fifty years, free of interest. Amortization is to begin after a ten-year period of grace; thereafter, one per cent of the principal is repayable annually for ten years, and three per cent is repayable annually for the final thirty years. A service charge of three-quarters of one per cent per annum, payable on the amounts withdrawn and outstanding, is being made to meet IDA's administrative costs.

INTERNATIONAL FINANCE CORPORATION

(IFC)

Functions

The International Finance Corporation (IFC) is an international institution created in July 1956 to assist the industrial development of its less developed member countries. The purpose of IFC is to stimulate the growth of private enterprises by its own investments, by encouraging other international investment in private enterprise, and by stimulating within member countries the development of capital markets on which private enterprises can draw.

Organization

While IFC is an affiliate of the World Bank, it is a separate legal entity and has its own funds and staff. The World Bank, however, provides a wide range of administrative and other services for IFC. Membership in IFC is open to all governments which are members of the Bank. The Governors and Executive Directors of the World Bank representing governments which are also members of IFC hold identical positions for IFC. The President of the World Bank serves *ex officio* as Chairman of IFC's Board of Directors, which has selected him to serve also as President of the Corporation. IFC's authorized capital is \$100 million of which approximately \$98.1 million has been paid in by seventy-two member governments.

The annual meetings of the Board of Governors of IFC are held

in conjunction with those of the World Bank, IDA, and the International Monetary Fund (IMF).

IFC headquarters are at Washington 25, D.C.

Activities

By and large, IFC's activities fall under four main heads: first, investment in manufacturing enterprises, usually on a mixed loan and equity basis; second, standby and underwriting arrangements; third, work with development banks, through which IFC renders certain services to the World Bank and to IDA; and fourth, the sale of participations in its investments.

The Corporation can make investments only in its member countries and their territories. As a matter of policy, it does not invest in the more developed countries. IFC investments are made in association with private investors in cases where sufficient capital is not available on reasonable terms; it does not compete with private capital. The Corporation does not seek or accept governmental guarantees of its investments.

IFC makes investments in a wide range of industrial enterprises, such as the manufacture or processing of automotive and engineering products, building materials, electrical equipment, food products, pulp and paper, steel and other metals, and textiles.

IFC is permitted to make its investments in any form. In practice, its financing usually takes the form of investment in capital shares, conventional loans, loans with equity features, or a combination of these.

There are no formal upper or lower limits to the amount that IFC may invest in a particular enterprise. However, as a practical matter, IFC will not undertake too large investments which would limit the extent to which its funds could be spread, or too small investments which would be uneconomical in relation to the administrative costs of study and negotiation. The average amount of IFC investments has been \$1.25 million. Where a new enterprise is being established, IFC does not expect its financial participation to be as much as half the total; where an existing enterprise is being expanded, IFC may consider taking more than half of the total new investment.

During 1962, IFC began to exercise its newly acquired authority, approved by the Board of Governors in September 1961, to invest in capital stock. The new authority opened the way for IFC not only to invest in shares of industrial enterprises, but to join in underwriting the offerings of shares to other investors.

A second important development was the creation of a Development Bank Services Department in IFC. The Corporation and its parent institution, the World Bank, have always attached great impor-

tance to the role in stimulating industrial growth that can be played by private development banks able to provide or mobilize medium-term and long-term investment in industry. The new IFC Department will take the lead, not only for IFC but also for the Bank and its other affiliate, IDA, in considering all proposals for financial and technical assistance to industrial development banks.

Investment Operations

From the beginning of its operations in July 1956 to December 31, 1962, the Corporation had made fifty-six investments, including standby and underwriting commitments, totaling \$80.5 million, in twenty-three member countries.

Financial Activities

During the calendar year 1962, IFC received \$75,000 as profits from sales of investments bringing total profit from sales of investments to \$522,352.

During the same period, sales of and participations in IFC investments and underwriting commitments totaled \$4.7 million. These transactions raised the total amount of investments sold to \$13.8 million.

Acquisition by others of securities covered by standby and underwriting commitments totaled \$2.4 million.

Gross earnings for the year ending December 31, 1962, totaled \$4.8 million; thus, after deduction of administrative expenses of \$2 million, net income for the calendar year came to \$2.8 million. Accumulated net income, which was transferred to a reserve against losses, totaled \$14.7 million as of December 31, 1962.

Disbursements against the Corporation's investments during the year amounted to \$18.6 million.

INTERNATIONAL MONETARY FUND

(FUND, or IMF)

Origin

The Articles of Agreement for the International Monetary Fund (IMF) were drawn up by the United Nations Monetary and Financial Conference, which met at Bretton Woods, New Hampshire, in July, 1944. The Conference was attended by representatives of forty-four nations. The Articles of Agreement came into force on December 27, 1945, and the inaugural meeting of the Fund's Board of Governors was held, in conjunction with that of the Board of Governors of the

International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, in Savannah, Georgia, in March, 1946.

Functions

IMF was established to promote international cooperation on monetary problems through a permanent institution which provides the machinery for consultation and collaboration. Its main purposes are:

to facilitate, as primary objectives of economic policy the expansion and balanced growth of international trade, contributing thereby to the promotion and maintenance of high levels of employment and real income and to the development of the productive resources of all members;

to promote exchange stability, to maintain orderly exchange arrangements among members, and to avoid competitive exchange depreciation; and

to give confidence to members by making the Fund's resources available to them under adequate safeguards.

Organization

The Fund works through the Board of Governors, the Board of Executive Directors, a Managing Director, and a staff.

All powers of the Fund are vested in the Board of Governors, which consists of one Governor and one Alternate appointed by each member. Voting power of the Governors is related to the size of the quota of the member nations they represent.

The Board of Executive Directors is responsible for the conduct of the general operations of the Fund and exercises the powers delegated to it by the Board of Governors. Five Executive Directors are appointed by members having the largest quotas, and the others, at present thirteen, are elected by the Governors representing the remaining members. Each appointed Director casts all the votes of the country which appointed him, and each elected Director casts as a unit all the votes of the countries which elected him.

The Executive Directors appoint a managing Director, who must not be a Governor or an Executive Director. He is the Chairman of the Board of Executive Directors and chief of the operating staff.

The First Managing Director was Camille Gutt, of Belgium, who served a five-year term ending May 5, 1951. He was succeeded by Ivar Rooth, of Sweden, who assumed his duties in August 1951. Per Jacobsson, of Sweden, was Managing Director from December 1956 until his death in May 1963. His successor is Pierre-Paul Schweitzer, of France, appointed in June 1963.

Membership

The Fund, as of February 28, 1963, had eighty-three members.

Resources of the Fund

As of December 31, 1962, assets of the Fund included, in round figures, \$2,995.3 million in gold, \$11,207.4 million in various national currencies, and \$762.5 million in subscriptions receivable. Total quotas were \$15,188.7 million. The subscriptions of members are equal to their quotas. Each member must pay in gold twenty-five per cent of its subscription or ten per cent of its net official gold and dollar holdings, whichever is less. The balance is paid in the member's own currency.

The Fund's resources were further strengthened in 1962 under an arrangement by which ten major industrial nations stand ready to lend the Fund up to \$6,000 million in their respective currencies should this be necessary to forestall or cope with a threat to the international monetary system. The arrangements entered into force on October 24, 1962 when the United States became the eighth nation formally to adhere. Belgium announced its formal adherence in January 1963 and the formal adherence of Canada is expected following completion of the necessary legislative steps.

Administrative Budget

The Fund's total administrative expenditure for the fiscal year ended April 30, 1962, was \$8,149,977. Total income for the same period was \$33,106,768. The Fund's income is derived principally from charges on its transactions and income from certain short-term investments.

Activities

Consultations

At the end of 1962, twenty-two countries had eliminated exchange restrictions in accordance with Article VIII of the Fund's Articles of Agreement; annual consultations with those members maintaining restrictions under Article XIV are required by the Articles of Agreement and these were continued during 1962.

Exchange Transactions

On March 1, 1947, the Fund began active exchange operations. From that date to December 31, 1962, the Fund concluded exchange trans-

actions with forty-seven of its members. These countries purchased United States and Canadian dollars, pounds sterling, Deutsche marks, Belgian and French francs, Argentine pesos, Italian lire, Danish and Swedish kronor, Japanese yen, Austrian schillings, Spanish pesetas, and Netherlands guilders aggregating \$6,745.8 million in exchange for an equivalent amount of their own currencies. Total repayments for the period March 1, 1947, to December 31, 1962, amounted to \$5,076.8 million.

Technical Assistance

The Fund maintains an extensive program of technical assistance to many parts of the world. It also provides studies, reports, and publications on international economic and financial subjects.

Publications

The Fund, besides publishing its *Annual Report*, which includes a commentary on current monetary developments, has a publication program including the following: an *Annual Report on Exchange Restrictions*, which surveys recent developments in the field of restrictions and outlines the restrictive systems of individual countries; a monthly magazine, *International Financial Statistics*, which shows price and production levels, exchange rates, money supply, volume and value of foreign trade, gold and foreign exchange holdings, money and capital market movements in most countries, and also includes comparative sections showing world trade, gold production, market exchange rates, and government bond quotations and yields; the *International Financial News Survey*, a digest of economic and financial news taken from periodicals of all countries; *Balance-of-Payments Yearbook*, in which balance-of-payments statements are presented on a comparable basis for some seventy-five countries; *Staff Papers*, which includes some of the staff-prepared studies on monetary and financial problems. The Fund also cooperates with the United Nations and IBRD in the publication of *Direction of International Trade*, a monthly publication distributed through the United Nations, and showing trade-by-country statistics for some 100 countries.

INTERNATIONAL

CIVIL AVIATION ORGANIZATION (ICAO)

Origin

A convention providing for the establishment of an international civil aviation organization was drawn up by the International Civil Avia-

tion Conference held in Chicago from November 1 to December 7, 1944. The International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) came into being on April 4, 1947, thirty days after the convention had been ratified by the required twenty-six states. Under an agreement drawn up by the Chicago Conference a Provisional International Civil Aviation Organization (PICAO) operated from June 6, 1945, until the formal establishment of ICAO.

The Chicago Convention superseded the provisions of two earlier agreements, namely, the Paris Convention of 1919, which established the International Commission for Air Navigation (ICAN) to set up standards on technical matters, and the Pan American Convention on Commercial Aviation, drawn up at Havana in 1928.

Functions

The aims and objectives of ICAO are to develop the principles and techniques of international air navigation, and to foster the planning and development of international air transport so as to:

- ensure the safe and orderly growth of international civil aviation throughout the world;

- encourage the arts of aircraft design and operation for peaceful purposes;

- encourage the development of airways, airports, and air navigation facilities for international civil aviation;

- meet the needs of the peoples of the world for safe, regular, efficient, and economical air transport;

- prevent economic waste caused by unreasonable competition;

- ensure that the rights of contracting states are fully respected and that every contracting state has a fair opportunity to operate international airlines;

- avoid discrimination between contracting states;

- promote safety of flight in international air navigation; and

- promote generally the development of all aspects of international civil aeronautics.

Organization

ICAO operates through an Assembly, a Council, a President of the Council, a Secretary-General, and a secretariat. ICAO also works through a number of commissions and committees.

The Assembly consists of all of the member states of ICAO, each of which has one vote. It is convened by the Council at least once in a three-year period. The Assembly decides on ICAO policy, votes

on the budget, and deals with any question not specifically referred to the Council.

The Council, composed of twenty-seven states elected by the Assembly, carries out the directives of the Assembly. It elects its President, appoints the Secretary-General, and administers the finances of the organization. It creates standards for international air navigation and collects, examines, and publishes information concerning air navigation. It may also act, if so requested by the countries concerned, as a tribunal for the settlement of any dispute arising among member states relating to international civil aviation. The Council is assisted in its work by an Air Navigation Commission and by four committees: air transport, legal, joint support of air navigation services, and finance.

The Secretary-General of ICAO appoints the staff of the secretariat and supervises and directs its activities. In December 1958 the Council of ICAO appointed Ronald M. Macdonnell of Canada as Secretary-General for a five-year term beginning in mid-1959.

ICAO headquarters are in Montreal, Canada.

ICAO maintains five field offices which serve as liaison between ICAO and its various member states: the North American office in Mexico City; the South American office in Lima; the European and African office in Paris; the Middle East office in Cairo; the Far East and Pacific office in Bangkok; a sixth office located in Africa will be opened shortly.

Membership

States which have ratified or adhered to the Convention on International Civil Aviation become member states of ICAO. As of December 1962, ninety-eight states were members.

Budget

ICAO's net budget for 1963 is \$4,663,234.

Activities

Since August 1945 ICAO and its provisional organization have sought to bring about concerted action by the nations of the world in the organization and maintenance of facilities and services necessary for international air transport. Patterns for meteorological services, traffic control, communications, radio beacons, and other facilities for safe international flight have been developed.

By 1963, regional air navigation meetings had been held cov-

ering all the major international flying areas of the world as classified by ICAO: North Atlantic, European and Mediterranean, Caribbean, Middle East, South American-South Atlantic, Pacific, Africa, Indian Ocean, Southeast Asia. These meetings examined existing facilities for airports, navigational aids, communications, air traffic control, meteorology, operations, and search and rescue, and determined what additional facilities and operating procedures were needed to make flying in these regions safer, more economical, and more regular. One such meeting in 1946 resulted in ten member states agreeing to maintain ocean weather stations at specified points in the North Atlantic. In addition to meteorological information, these stations provide navigation aids, communications facilities, and search and rescue facilities throughout the region. Nineteen nations now participate in the agreement, which provides for nine stations to be manned by twenty-one ships.

ICAO has also brought about the cooperative maintenance of other air navigation and meteorological facilities required by aircraft flying over sparsely populated regions or regions of uncertain sovereignty. Two agreements relating to the maintenance and financing of air navigation services in Iceland and in Greenland and the Faroe Islands are now in effect; both agreements have the participation of seventeen member states of ICAO. The two agreements include also the joint financing of a submarine cable system across the North Atlantic via Greenland and Iceland designed to improve substantially aeronautical communications services.

ICAO's work in preparing for the introduction of new generations of larger and faster transport aircraft has continued at an accelerated pace since 1956. Superimposed on the organization's regular program for promoting the implementation of the facilities and services called for by the regional plans was the work of the Special Implementation Panel, created by the ICAO Council in 1956. The Panel specified the requirements to be met for the economical and dependable operation of jet aircraft and entered into negotiations with governments to satisfy these requirements.

The 1962 Assembly adopted measures designed to ensure that the services and facilities required for the smooth and efficient operation of faster-than-sound civil aircraft will be available before the introduction into commercial service of such aircraft in order that these operations be of advantage to the people of the world.

Standards and Recommended Practices

To ensure the highest practicable degree of uniformity in international civil aviation regulations, the ICAO Council has adopted fifteen sets of standards and recommended practices. These are constantly reviewed, and amendments made when necessary; all are in effect,

as annexes to the ICAO Convention, in the territories of ICAO's member states. Standards have been established for: personnel licensing, rules of the air, meteorology, aeronautical charts, dimensional units to be used in air-ground communications, operation of aircraft in international commercial air transport, aircraft nationality and registration marks, airworthiness of aircraft, facilitation, aeronautical telecommunications, air traffic services, search and rescue, aircraft accident inquiry, aerodromes, and aeronautical information services.

If a state is unable to put a standard into effect in its territory, it must notify ICAO of the differences between its own practices and those established by the international standard. The Council must in turn notify all other members of ICAO of these differences. Notification of non-compliance with recommended practices is, however, unnecessary.

International Air Law Convention

The principal achievements of ICAO in the legal field are three international air law conventions and a protocol of amendment to a convention which has been in existence since 1929. They are: the Convention on the International Recognition of Rights in Aircraft, adopted by the ICAO Assembly in Geneva in June 1948; the Convention on Damage Caused by Foreign Aircraft to Third Parties on the Surface, adopted at a diplomatic conference in Rome in September 1952; the Convention, supplementary to the Warsaw Convention, for the Unification of Certain Rules for the International Carriage by Air Performed by a Person Other Than the Contracting Carrier, approved at a diplomatic conference in Guadalajara, Mexico, in September 1961; and a Protocol of amendment to the Warsaw Convention of 1929 concerning the Liability of the Air Carrier to Passengers and Cargo, which was adopted by a diplomatic conference at The Hague in September 1955.

As of December 31, 1962: twenty states had ratified or adhered to the Geneva Convention which entered into force on September 17, 1953; there were thirteen parties to the Rome Convention which entered into force on February 4, 1958; the Guadalajara Convention was signed by twenty-four states and ratified by three and will come into force when ratified by five states; The Hague Protocol was signed by thirty-nine states and ratified by twenty-eight and will come into effect when ratified by thirty nations.

Agreements, arrangements, and modifications thereof concluded between states or between states and airlines are registered with ICAO, while national aviation laws and regulations are also filed by ICAO. By the end of 1962, some 1,646 agreements and arrangements had been registered.

Work in the Air Transport Field

In the field of air transport much of ICAO's activity is of a continuing or long-term nature, such as follow-up work in the facilitation field and the producing of statistical digests.

The basic aim of the organization in the field of facilitation is to achieve—to the maximum degree consistent with the public interest—free and unimpeded passage of aircraft and of the crews, passengers, baggage, cargo, and mail that they carry on international flights. ICAO has set down international standards specifying the maximum formalities and documentation requirements which any state may impose; it has also, with the publication of *The Aims and Objectives of ICAO in the Field of Facilitation*, prepared by the Air Transport Committee and approved by the Council in June 1958, provided a guide to contracting states for future planning in this field.

As a further response to the Assembly's request for a general forecast of trends and developments in civil aviation, the secretariat of ICAO prepared for the Air Transport Committee a preliminary study of air freight developments which came out in 1962. Another study dealing with inclusive tour services in international air transport was also prepared in 1962 and is to be followed in early 1963 by a study of the use of aircraft for other than transport operations.

The role statistics play in the deliberations of ICAO is important since one of the mandatory functions of the Council is to request, collect, examine, and publish statistical information, which states are obligated to file. The information relates to the advancement of air navigation and the operation of international air services, including information about the cost of operation and particulars of subsidies paid to airlines from public funds.

Upon the request of the Universal Postal Union (UPU), the ICAO Air Transport Bureau prepared statistical data on the operating costs of international scheduled air transport operations during the years 1951-60. This material will serve to assess the economic position of international airlines in connection with a study of air mail conveyance rates undertaken by UPU in preparation for the Universal Postal Congress in 1963.

Technical Assistance Activities

ICAO participates in the United Nations Expanded Program of Technical Assistance; its 1962 budget for this program was more than \$2,160,000. Because the less developed countries very often are unable to build roads and railroads, modern aircraft have often filled this transportation gap; ICAO's technical assistance activities are thus concentrated on projects to increase the safety or efficiency of air transport operations. Advice has also been provided in organizing govern-

ment departments of civil aviation, preparing air laws and regulations, and organizing and operating airlines. With the new developments in the field of aviation, there has been recognition in ICAO that preparation for the jet age is the most urgent problem before the organization, and the technical assistance program is helping to prepare the way for the operation of turbine-engine aircraft.

During 1962, 219 experts were engaged in ICAO missions maintained in some thirty countries and in shorter-term surveys and visits to fifty states. Training programs were continued in 1962 and advice of various kinds was given to governments to strengthen many aspects of their civil aviation departments.

In view of the emergency situation which existed in the field of aviation in the Congo (Leopoldville) in 1960, an ICAO technical assistance team was sent to perform air traffic control, communications, and other technical tasks, on an emergency basis, as well as to train Congolese personnel to take over the responsibilities involved as soon as they were able to do so. In 1962 the mission expanded its activities and the first course for air traffic controllers was completed as fifteen graduates began on-the-job training at Leopoldville airport.

ICAO has also participated in the work of the United Nations Special Fund. In 1961, six projects with ICAO as Executing Agency had been approved, for training centers in Bangkok, Cairo, Casablanca, Mexico City, and Tunis, and a national aeronautical laboratory at Bangalore, India. All were in operation in 1962. Plans for the establishment of a Civil Aviation Safety Centre at Beirut were approved.

Publications

ICAO continually collects, analyzes, and publishes statistical information relating to international aviation services. It issues a wide range of technical publications, including operational standards, regional manuals, and multilanguage glossaries. It also publishes the *ICAO Bulletin*, which contains a review of ICAO's current activities. A detailed report on the aims and work of ICAO is contained in the *Memorandum on ICAO*, which can be obtained free, in English, French, and Spanish from the Public Information Office of ICAO.

Documentary films, in English, French, and Spanish sound versions, and an exhibition picture set designed for wall display are also available.

UNIVERSAL POSTAL UNION (UPU)

Origin

The first attempt to conclude a universal postal agreement was made by an International Postal Conference held in Paris in 1863. Fifteen

American and European countries attended the meeting, which adopted resolutions establishing general principles to secure greater uniformity in postal relations hitherto regulated by numerous bilateral agreements.

Eleven years later the first International Postal Congress met in Berne, and delegates from twenty-two countries participated. The Congress adopted an International Postal Convention, which was signed on October 9, 1874, and came into force on July 1, 1875; it formally established the General Postal Union. The second International Postal Congress, held in Paris in 1878, changed the name of the General Postal Union to the Universal Postal Union (UPU).

Functions

The aim of UPU is to secure the organization and improvement of postal services and to promote in this sphere the development of international collaboration. To this end, the members of UPU form a single postal territory for the reciprocal exchange of correspondence.

The provisions of the Universal Postal Convention fix the constitutional structure of UPU and regulate the letter-mail service; they also fix the basic charges, weight limits, and dimensions for articles of correspondence. The implementation of the Convention is obligatory for all the members.

Eight other postal services, however, insured letters and boxes, postal parcels and money orders, for example, are regulated by special agreements binding only those members of UPU which have acceded to them.

Organization

The principal organs of UPU are the Universal Postal Congress, the Executive and Liaison Committee, the Consultative Committee for Postal Studies, and the International Bureau.

The Universal Postal Congress, which usually meets at five-year intervals, reviews the Universal Postal Convention and its subsidiary agreements and fixes the place of meeting of the following Congress.

The Executive and Liaison Committee, which normally holds one session a year at Berne, consists of twenty members elected by the Congress on an equitable geographical basis. The Committee ensures the continuity of the work of UPU in the interval between Congresses. For this purpose it maintains close contact with postal administrations, exercises certain control over the activities of the International Bureau, ensures working relations with the United Nations and other international organizations, undertakes consultation, makes studies, and submits proposals to the Congress.

The Consultative Committee for Postal Studies, established in 1957, is open to all UPU members. It is charged with carrying out studies and issuing advice on technical, operational, and economic questions of concern to postal services. A twenty-member Management Council, meeting once a year, coordinates and determines the operational plans of the Committee.

The International Bureau of UPU, which is its permanent secretariat, serves postal administrations as an organ for liaison, information, and consultation; it acts also as a clearing-house for the settlement of accounts relative to the international postal service.

The Director of the Bureau is Edouard Weber, of Switzerland. UPU headquarters are at Berne, Switzerland.

As of December 1962 there were 117 UPU members.

Budget

Each Congress fixes the maximum figure for the ordinary annual expenses of the Union. These expenses, as well as extraordinary charges, are met in common by all the members of UPU, who are divided, for this purpose, into seven classes, of which each contributes a set proportion. In case of a new accession to the Convention, the Swiss Government determines, in agreement with the government of the member concerned, the class to which it will belong from the point of view of contributing to the expenses of the Bureau.

The Congress of Ottawa in 1957 fixed a financial ceiling of about \$581,000 for the total annual expenses of UPU.

The Swiss Government supervises the expenses of the International Bureau and advances the necessary funds.

Activities

During the year 1962, the Executive and Liaison Committee (CEL), met at Berne from September 21 to 29, in order to examine, among other important questions, those of technical assistance, air mail, and personnel. The Committee will submit to the next UPU Congress proposals designed to modify the different regulations concerning monetary instruments for the purpose of adapting their provisions to the requirements of the service.

As regards the Consultative Committee for Postal Studies (CCSP), its Management Council executive committee held meetings, also in Berne, in early October, to survey various studies and to consider the eventual establishment of a professional school for postal studies as well as the program of work of 1963-68.

In other fields, the year 1962 saw continued collaboration between UPU, the United Nations, and other international organizations. In this regard, the visit of the United Nations Secretary-General, U

Thant, to the International Bureau on July 12 should be mentioned. So far as commemorative issues and campaigns organized by the specialized agencies are concerned, the members of the Administrative Committee on Coordination (ACC), (*see page 468*), agreed to the request of the Director of UPU that they would consult the Bureau before requesting governments to issue special stamps to support their campaigns.

Technical Cooperation

The striking element in UPU activities during 1962 was the new emphasis on technical assistance. The Economic and Social Council approved, in August, UPU's participation in the United Nations Expanded Program of Technical Assistance. Thus, as of January 1963, UPU has been carrying on projects within the framework of the expanded program.

This new activity has not, however, prevented UPU from following its traditional activity of bilateral assistance. In this respect, the International Bureau served as intermediary between postal administrations ready to furnish direct technical assistance to those wishing to receive it.

Also, through the United Nations Operations in the Congo, UPU was able to supply the Congo (Leopoldville), with experts. In addition, it supplied, through a national postal administration, twenty-four vehicles for the Congo postal service.

Publication

The International Bureau publishes a monthly, written in seven languages, entitled *Postal Union*. This magazine, in the French issue, includes an illustrated section on philately.

INTERNATIONAL TELECOMMUNICATION UNION (ITU)

Origin

A Convention establishing an International Telegraph Union was signed in Paris on May 17, 1865, by the plenipotentiaries of twenty founding states: Austria, Baden, Bavaria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Greece, Hanover, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Prussia, Russia, Saxony, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, and Württemberg. In 1885, in Berlin, the first regulations relating to international telephone services were inserted in the Telegraph Regulations annexed to this Convention.

At the first International Radiotelegraph Conference, held in Berlin, twenty-seven states signed the International Radiotelegraph Convention of November 3, 1906.

In 1932 the International Telegraph Convention and the International Radiotelegraph Convention were merged to form the International Telecommunication Convention, which was signed at Madrid on December 9. Under this Convention, which came into force on January 1, 1934, the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) succeeded the International Telegraph Union.

In 1947, at international conferences held in the United States, ITU readjusted its organizational structure, adopted measures designed to take account of certain advances that had been made in the techniques of telecommunication, and entered into an agreement with the United Nations whereby, among other provisions, ITU was recognized as the specialized agency for telecommunications. A new Convention was adopted containing provisions to give effect to the substantial changes made.

ITU was governed from January 1949 until December 1953 by the 1947 Convention; a revised Convention, adopted by the Buenos Aires Plenipotentiary Conference in 1952, entered into force on January 1, 1954; currently, the Geneva Convention which entered into force on January 1, 1961, governs ITU.

Purposes and Functions

ITU has three main purposes:

- to maintain and extend international cooperation for the improvement and rational use of telecommunications;

- to promote the development and most efficient operation of technical facilities in order to increase their usefulness and, as far as possible, to make them generally available to the public; and

- to harmonize the actions of nations in the attainment of these common ends.

The term "telecommunication" is defined by international agreement as any transmission, emission, or reception of signs, signals, writing, images, and sounds or intelligence of any nature by wire, radio, optical, or other electromagnetic systems. The term "radiocommunication" is defined as any telecommunication by means of radio waves.

ITU has six main functions:

- it makes allocation of the radio-frequency spectrum and registers radio-frequency assignments to avoid harmful interference between radio stations of different countries;

it coordinates efforts to eliminate harmful interference between radio stations;

it seeks to establish the lowest charges for telecommunications possible;

it fosters the creation, development, and improvement of telecommunications in newly-independent or developing countries, especially by its participation in the appropriate programs of the United Nations;

it promotes the adoption of measures for ensuring the safety of life through the cooperation of telecommunication services;

it undertakes studies, issues recommendations and opinions, and collects and publishes information for the benefit of its members and associate members.

Organization

The organization of ITU consists of a Plenipotentiary Conference, which is the supreme organ of ITU; Administrative Conferences; an Administrative Council; and four permanent organs: a general secretariat, an International Frequency Registration Board (IFRB), an International Telegraph and Telephone Consultative Committee (CCITT), and an International Radio Consultative Committee (CCIR).

The Plenipotentiary Conference, at which each member and each associate member have the right to be represented, normally meets at a date and place fixed by the preceding Conference. Each member has one vote in the Conference, which determines general policies, considers the report of the Administrative Council, establishes the basis for the budget, and determines a fiscal limit for expenditure until the next Conference. It approves the accounts; elects the Administrative Council, the Secretary-General, and the Deputy Secretary-General; revises the Convention if it considers it necessary; and enters into or revises agreements with other international organizations.

The next Plenipotentiary Conference will take place in Switzerland in 1965, and will commemorate the hundredth anniversary of ITU.

There are two ordinary Administrative Conferences, one dealing with telegraph and telephone regulations and the other with radio regulations. The latter elects the members of the International Frequency Registration Board, instructs the Board, and reviews its activities. Extraordinary and special administrative conferences may also be held.

The Administrative Council, composed of twenty-five members, supervises ITU's administrative functions between sessions of the Plenipotentiary Conference, reviews and approves the annual budget,

and coordinates the work of ITU with other international organizations. It meets annually at ITU headquarters. A new Council was elected in Geneva in 1959.

The general secretariat is headed by the Secretary-General, Gerald C. Gross, of the United States. One hundred and forty-four persons were employed in the general secretariat on December 31, 1962, excluding staff employed on short-term contracts; 142 were employed in the IFRB, twenty-five in the CCITT, and seventeen in the CCIR.

The headquarters of ITU are in Geneva, Switzerland.

Membership

The Geneva Convention contains a list of ninety-six countries or groups of territories which may become members of ITU after ratification in the case of the eighty-four signatories, and after accession in the case of the twelve non-signatories. The Convention also contains the names of five groups of territories which may become associate members of ITU after ratification or accession on their behalf by the responsible members. One of these responsible members has signed the Convention for an associate member.

On December 31, 1962, there were 117 members and three associate members of ITU.

Budget

The expenses of ITU are borne by all members and associate members, each of them choosing the class of contribution in which it wishes to be included and paying in advance its annual contributory share of the budget calculated on the basis of the budgetary provisions.

A revised budget of \$3,371,852 for 1962 was adopted at the Administrative Council's seventeenth session.

Activities

The General Secretariat

One of the most important duties of the general secretariat is to collect, collate, publish, and keep up-to-date the numerous documents essential for the day-to-day operation of telecommunication services. It is also responsible for the secretarial arrangements of conferences and meetings of ITU. It maintains relations both by correspondence and by meetings with the United Nations, the specialized agencies, and other international organizations. With it are deposited instruments of ratification of the Convention and instruments of accession.

Studies of the International Consultative Committees

The international consultative committees work through study groups composed of experts from governmental telecommunication administrations and recognized private operating agencies. They work by correspondence, by meetings, or in plenary assemblies. In general, the studies of the consultative committees are made by the representatives of the more technically advanced administrations, but the results are placed at the disposal of all administrations. The range of studies of the two consultative committees may be gathered from the following lists of study groups in the telecommunication field.

INTERNATIONAL TELEGRAPH

AND TELEPHONE CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEE (CCITT)

CCITT study groups are concerned with: telegraph operations and tariffs; telephone operations and tariffs; general tariff principles; maintenance of the international network; protection against electro-magnetic disturbances; protection of cable sheaths and poles; definitions, vocabulary, and symbols; telegraph apparatus, transmissions, and switching; telephone switching and transmission performance; semi-automatic and automatic telephone networks; facsimile; transmission systems; and telephone circuits.

There are also special study groups, three dealing with data transmission, world semi-automatic and automatic telephone networks, and noise (joint CCITT/CCIR); a joint committee (CCIR/CCITT) for television transmission and three subcommittees designated Plan Subcommittee for Africa, Plan Subcommittee for Asia, and Plan Subcommittee for Latin America. In addition, there is a Temporary Study Group for the Inter-American Telecommunication Network.

The secretariat of CCITT prepares a number of special publications in connection with telegraphy and telephony.

INTERNATIONAL RADIO CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEE (CCIR)

CCIR study groups are concerned with: transmitters; receivers; fixed service systems; space systems and radioastronomy; propagation, including the effects of the earth and the troposphere; ionospheric propagation; standard-frequencies and time signals; international monitoring; radio-relay systems; broadcasting; television; tropical broadcasting; mobile services; and vocabulary.

The space age having begun on October 4, 1957, with the successful launching of the first artificial satellite round the earth by the USSR, CCIR called on one of its study groups to investigate the technical problems of telecommunication with and between points in

space. The resultant studies will be of considerable importance when the Extraordinary Administrative Radio Conference meets toward the end of 1963 to allocate frequency bands to the new space radio service.

A number of special publications in the radio field are prepared by the secretariat.

**FREQUENCY ALLOCATION,
RECORDING OF FREQUENCY ASSIGNMENTS, AND THE
INTERNATIONAL FREQUENCY REGISTRATION BOARD
(IFRB)**

Until April 30, 1961, IFRB continued to discharge its duties in accordance with the provisions of the Convention, the Atlantic City Radio Regulations (1947), and the Extraordinary Administrative Radio Conference Agreement (Geneva, 1951). On May 1, however, the Radio Regulations (Geneva, 1959) entered into force and on the same date the Master International Frequency Register became effective. The Board's duties, as prescribed in the Convention and the Geneva Radio Regulations, have related to the utilization, notification, technical examination, and registration of frequencies and have included new duties such as investigation into the use of frequencies and provisions concerning special assistance to the administrations of countries in need thereof. During 1962, the Board dealt with a total of 51,726 frequency assignment notices. It also undertook technical examination or re-examination of 15,609 frequency assignments already recorded in the Master International Frequency Register.

The Board was able to apply after March 1, 1960 when it became effective, the procedure specified in the Geneva Radio Regulations for the bands allocated exclusively to the High-Frequency Broadcasting Service. Four schedules were published in 1962 together with recommendations for their improvement. The response from administrations indicates that the procedure is becoming increasingly effective. The first annual high frequency broadcasting list containing the assignments of the first four HF broadcasting schedules—September and November 1961, March and May 1962—is being completed and will be published early in 1963.

After the meeting in September 1961 of the first session of the Panel of Experts to study measures to reduce congestion in the frequency bands between 4 Mc/s and 27.5 Mc/s, the Board communicated the interim report of the Panel of Experts to administrations, with an invitation to submit their comments. In accordance with the new program of work, the execution of which has been entrusted by the Panel to IFRB, the latter is preparing data for the second session of the Panel, at Geneva, in June 1963.

The Board continued preparatory work for the Extraordinary Administrative Radio Conference, scheduled to meet at Geneva in October, 1963, to allocate frequency bands for space communications.

The Board took steps to give effect to the decisions of the European VHF/UHF Broadcasting Conference held in Stockholm in May 1961, which for the first time used an electronic computer for planning.

Technical Assistance

During 1962, forty-nine experts of the Expanded Program of Technical Assistance were on mission, either commencing new, or continuing earlier, assignments. These experts came from sixteen countries and were sent to twenty-nine countries in three regions—Africa, Asia and the Far East, and Latin America. The number of fellowships awarded under the expanded program rose to sixty-four, of which thirty-six refer to African countries. In addition, fifty-eight expanded program fellowships, awarded in the previous years, were implemented by arranging study programs for the recipients. Under the same program, telecommunication equipment, representing a total value of \$190,000, was supplied to thirteen countries, of which ten were African.

The Special Fund continued to be an important additional source from which the ITU could help its members secure substantial assistance over longer periods. Thus the number of approved projects increased in 1962 to seven, totaling more than \$5.3 million. Effective field operations were commenced in connection with four projects during the year, and at the end of the year, four chiefs of mission were in the field and a fifth on his way to take up his duties. Three supporting experts were on project sites and ten others under recruitment. Equipment to the approximate value of \$80,000 was supplied under the Special Fund.

The mission in operation since 1959 in Venezuela under the funds-in-trust scheme continued during 1962 with three experts.

Space Telecommunications

The General Assembly of the United Nations recognized on December 20, 1961, that ITU bears important responsibilities in the field of space communications. ITU's various organs are actively engaged in studies covering space telecommunication technique and regulations, particularly with a view to the preparation of the Extraordinary Administrative Radio Conference due to meet in October 1963, whose decisions promise to be of capital importance, not only for ITU and telecommunications in general, but for future developments in the most varied fields.

WORLD METEOROLOGICAL ORGANIZATION (WMO)

Origin

International cooperation in the field of meteorology was first established by an international conference held in 1853 at Brussels, Belgium, which dealt with a program for collecting meteorological observations made by ships at sea. In 1878, at a conference at Utrecht, the Netherlands, the International Meteorological Organization (IMO) was established.

The members of IMO were the directors of the meteorological services of various countries and territories throughout the world. Thus, IMO was not formally a governmental organization. Nevertheless, it pursued ambitious programs of perfecting and standardizing meteorological activities, especially services to maritime navigation, agriculture, and, increasingly, to aviation.

The creation of the United Nations provided a new framework for international collaboration in various areas, including technical and scientific fields. Consequently, the Conference of Directors of the national meteorological services, which met in Washington in 1947, adopted the World Meteorological Convention thus establishing a new organization. In 1951 the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) commenced activity, the former organization having been dissolved.

Functions

As stated in the preamble to its Convention, WMO was established "with a view to coordinating, standardizing and improving world meteorological activities and to encouraging an efficient exchange of meteorological information between countries in the aid of human activities".

The purposes of WMO are:

- to facilitate international cooperation in the establishment of networks of stations and centers to provide meteorological services and observations;

- to promote the establishment and maintenance of systems for the rapid exchange of weather information;

- to promote standardization of meteorological observations and ensure the uniform publication of observations and statistics;

- to further the application of meteorology to aviation, shipping, agriculture, and other human activities; and

- to encourage research and training in meteorology.

Organization

As provided by its Convention, wmo is headed by a President and two Vice-Presidents. It works through a World Meteorological Congress, an Executive Committee, regional associations, and technical commissions set up by the Congress, and a permanent secretariat headed by a Secretary-General.

The Congress, composed of all wmo members, meets at least once every four years. It adopts technical regulations covering meteorological practices and procedures and determines the general policies for the fulfillment of wmo's purposes.

The Executive Committee, which meets at least once a year, prepares studies and recommendations for the Congress, supervises the implementation of Congress resolutions and regulations, and informs and offers advice to members on technical matters. The Executive Committee also approves the annual financial appropriations of the organization within the overall budget approved by the Congress. The Committee is composed of twenty-one directors of national meteorological services.

The members of wmo are grouped into six regional associations, whose task is to coordinate meteorological activity within their respective regions and to examine from the regional point of view questions referred to them by the Executive Committee. The six regions are: Africa, Asia, South America, North and Central America, the southwest Pacific, and Europe.

The technical commissions are composed of experts nominated by members and are responsible for studying the applications of meteorology and the special technical branches which are related to the study and observation of the weather. Technical commissions have been established for agricultural meteorology, maritime meteorology, aeronautical meteorology, hydrological meteorology, synoptic meteorology, aerology, climatology, and instruments and methods of observation.

The secretariat of wmo carries out the duties allocated to it in the Convention and the regulations of the organization. Among its general functions are the following: to serve as the administrative, documentary, and information center of wmo; to make technical studies as directed by the Congress and the Executive Committee; to organize and perform secretarial duties at sessions of the Congress and the Executive Committee; to prepare, edit, publish, and distribute the publications of wmo; to maintain liaison and collaborate with the secretariats of other international organizations; and to act as the channel for communications, notifications, and invitations between wmo, its members, the constituent bodies of wmo, and other international organizations.

The President of wmo is Alf Nyberg, of Sweden; the First Vice-President, L. de Azcárraga, of Spain; and the Second Vice-President, Academician Fedorov, of the Soviet Union.

The Secretary-General is D. A. Davies, of the United Kingdom. The headquarters of wmo are at Geneva, Switzerland.

The secretariat has a staff of about 100 which constitutes the technical and administrative personnel of the organization.

Membership

Members of wmo are states and territories maintaining their own meteorological services. As of May 1963, there were 123 members of wmo—108 states and fifteen territories.

Budget

Wmo's expenditures are apportioned among its members in the proportion determined by the Congress. Its budget for the four-year financial period 1964-67 is \$5,373,000, plus development funds of \$1.5 million.

Activities

International Exchange of Weather Reports

One of the most essential and permanent tasks of wmo is to arrange for the international exchange of weather reports. At regular intervals, by day and by night, observers at weather stations throughout the world make meteorological observations at exactly the same time. The methods and practices followed—and even the order in which readings are made—are based on internationally agreed decisions and are practically uniform everywhere.

Every day about 8,000 stations, 3,000 transport and reconnaissance aircraft, and 3,000 ships transmit 100,000 weather observations for the surface of the earth and 10,000 observations relating to the upper air. The technical regulations containing the international rules which govern the work described above were adopted by wmo in 1955 and have been kept up to date.

Technical Cooperation in Meteorology and Hydrology

All those who work under the changing skies—the farmer, the aviator, and the sailor, for example—realize how their lives depend on the weather. But not so well known is the importance of the knowl-

edge of weather in the economic life of a country. Sudden disasters resulting from storms and floods retard economic advancement. Rain-fall observations and river-stage and river-flow observations are a vital need for designing hydroelectric and irrigation schemes and other water use and control projects. The existence of a national weather service and its proper functioning are of great importance to the development of a country's economy.

Many countries wishing to establish meteorological services or to improve or to increase the application of meteorology and hydrology to their projects of economic development have requested technical assistance from wmo. During the period 1952-62, 173 expert missions were organized and 291 fellowships were granted. In 1963 wmo participation in the United Nations expanded program of technical assistance amounts to \$1.1 million. Regional projects are designed to aid several countries in connection with a particular problem, as, for example, the setting up and operation of hurricane warning systems or hydrologic forecasting and water balance. Further, wmo served as executing agency for seven projects of the United Nations Special Fund, most of which concern the establishment of networks of meteorological and hydrological stations to provide the data necessary for the expansion of irrigated land and hydroelectric power supply.

Use of Artificial Satellites for Meteorological Purposes

The General Assembly of the United Nations has requested wmo to study, in the light of developments in outer space, measures: (a) to advance the state of atmospheric science and technology so as to provide greater knowledge of basic physical forces affecting climate and the possibility of large-scale weather modification; and (b) to develop existing weather forecasting capabilities and to help member states make effective use of such capabilities through regional meteorological centers. Study was begun in 1961 and a first report presented to the General Assembly at its seventeenth session (*see page 52*).

The use of satellites for meteorological purposes was initiated in 1960 and several experimental meteorological satellites have been launched since then. It soon became apparent that the cloud pictures, as well as the photographs of the snow cover over the earth's surface and of the distribution of ice on rivers and oceans obtained from satellites, constitute a major contribution to research in meteorology and to weather forecasting. Scientific measurements obtained from the satellites, such as infra-red radiation measurements, are also of great value. The satellites will not, of course, replace the present world-wide network of meteorological stations.

The satellites will, as one of their main tasks, fill in the "blanks"

on the weather chart over oceans, deserts, and the polar regions. They will also give valuable supplementary information in areas where surface observations are available.

In order to derive benefits for all nations and to develop weather forecasting capabilities, wmo recommended the establishment of a "World Weather Watch" based on meteorological satellites and a system of world and regional centers. The organization has also initiated an international program for research in meteorology in the light of developments in outer space, indicating priorities which appear especially important from the international point of view. Activities in this field are all directed toward ensuring that all nations may derive benefits from this extraordinary new tool for weather observations and research. (*See page 51.*)

Water Resource Development

The help of the meteorologist and the hydrologist is needed to control the vast quantities of water flowing down the rivers into the sea, to prevent floods, and to harness the rivers so that electric energy and water may be provided for irrigation and industry.

Wmo deals with those aspects of the water resource development program of the United Nations which fall within the common ground between meteorology and hydrology. In view of the extension of the organization's activities in this field, a technical commission for hydrological meteorology was created and held its first session in 1961 in Washington, D.C. Furthermore, under joint projects with the United Nations Economic Commissions for Asia and the Far East and for Latin America, efforts are being made to remedy the lack of hydrological data in their respective regions.

Meteorology and Atomic Energy

The General Assembly of the United Nations has asked wmo to study the question of whether regular observations of atmosphere radioactivity could be incorporated into the existing system of meteorological reporting and international exchanges. A plan for the incorporation of such data was submitted to the seventeenth session of the Assembly. Its implementation is expected to take place as from 1963.

Wmo also advises the United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation regarding the meteorological factors influencing the atmospheric transport and removal of radioactive particles.

The use of radioactive isotopes as a measuring technique in meteorology and hydrometeorological observations is also being studied and promoted by wmo. Together with the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), wmo is engaged in a project to promote re-

search on the water cycle—rain, run-off, rivers, oceans, and evaporation—through the use of hydrogen and oxygen isotopes.

Weather Information and Forecasting for International Civil Aviation

Together with the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), wmo has standardized internationally the meteorological services provided to civil aviation all over the world.

The developing requirements of aviation due to the introduction of jet aircraft and the planned introduction of supersonic aircraft into commercial aviation have determined the activities of wmo in this field during recent years. Training seminars on high-level forecasting have been organized jointly with ICAO in Cairo, Nicosia in Cyprus, and in Bangkok to train meteorologists in new techniques.

Climatic Atlases

A World Climatic Atlas is being developed by wmo to meet the needs of scientists, engineers, economists, and others. The only existing climatic atlas on a world scale dates back to 1898.

Detailed specifications regarding national and regional climatic atlases have been approved and adopted by wmo. A regional climatic atlas is under preparation for Africa, and wmo working groups have started the study of the same problem in Europe and South America. Geographical societies and commercial publishers are being informed of the wmo specifications to promote uniformity in the preparation of climatic maps all over the world.

Maritime Meteorology

Practically all weather information obtained from the sea is provided by voluntary observers on merchant ships. The ships are supplied with instruments by the meteorological services and report regularly by radio to selected coastal stations. In return, meteorological services, cooperating according to an international scheme developed by wmo, provide shipping with weather forecasts.

There are at present about 3,000 observing ships on the oceans, as well as thirteen stationary ocean weather ships. An international list of the voluntary observing ships recruited from about thirty different countries is issued each year by wmo. It indicates the call-sign, route, and instruments used by each of the ships.

Meteorological Telecommunications

The international exchange of weather information by means of telecommunications, such as radiotelephony and radiotelegraphy, requires

constant examination and review. In particular, teletype networks and facsimile broadcasts are being introduced to replace the slower and less dependable wireless broadcasts in the Morse code. Agreements on plans of broadcasts and networks, hours of observation and of transmission, and so on, fall within the province of wmo, and are part of its routine duties. In dealing with several aspects of its telecommunication problems, wmo works in close cooperation with the International Telecommunication Union.

Publications

The quarterly *WMO Bulletin* reports on the activities of various constituent bodies, and contains occasional articles on recent scientific developments in meteorology. Other publications of wmo fall into three main categories: basic documents of wmo, containing information on such subjects as the wmo Convention, general regulations, technical regulations, and working arrangements with other international organizations; final reports of meetings of wmo; and technical publications, including technical notes, and guides, and nomenclatures.

INTER-GOVERNMENTAL MARITIME CONSULTATIVE ORGANIZATION (IMCO)

The aims of the Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization (imco), which completed its fourth year of activity in 1962, are to facilitate cooperation and exchange of information among governments on all technical matters affecting shipping, and to achieve the highest practicable standards of maritime safety and efficient navigation, with special responsibility for safety of life at sea. Imco is responsible for convening, when necessary, international conferences on shipping matters and for drafting international conventions or agreements on this subject.

Organization

IMCO Assembly

The policy-making body of imco is the Assembly, composed of all imco members. The Assembly approves the appointment of the Secretary-General, approves financial and staff regulations, decides upon the work program, and votes the budget to which all member states contribute on an agreed scale of assessments. The Assembly meets every two years; the next regular session is to be held in 1963.

Council

Between sessions of the Assembly, the Council performs all the functions of the organization. At its sixth session, in February 1962, the Council considered various matters of domestic policy, and decided to establish a working group to advise on means to facilitate travel and transport.

Maritime Safety Committee

The fifth session of the Maritime Safety Committee, the third main organ of IMCO, was held in February 1962 to review the organization's work program. The Committee approved preparations for the International Conference on Oil Pollution, which was to be convened by IMCO; established a subcommittee on subdivision and stability problems; approved a program concerning coordination of safety at sea and in the air in which ITU, WMO, and ICAO will collaborate; and reviewed the work of its Working Group on the Carriage of Dangerous Goods by Sea.

Officers

The officers of IMCO are its Secretary-General, Jean Roullier, of France, and the Director of Administration and External Relations, Michael Higgins, of the United Kingdom.

Membership

As of December 31, 1962, the membership of IMCO was fifty-three, including one associate member.

Budget

The second Assembly, in 1961, voted a budget of \$892,350 for the two-year period 1962-63.

Activities

Oil Pollution of the Sea

An international conference on prevention of pollution of the sea by oil was convened by IMCO in March and April 1962, and was attended by representatives from fifty-five countries. Certain amendments to the 1954 Convention on Prevention of Pollution of the Sea by Oil, of

which IMCO is depositary, were adopted. During the year 1962, the following countries accepted this Convention: Australia, Ghana, Iceland, and Liberia.

International Convention for Safety of Life at Sea, 1960

IMCO is the depositary of this Convention, which was accepted by the following countries during 1962: Ghana, Madagascar, Morocco, the United States, and Viet Nam.

Carriage of Dangerous Goods by Sea

A working group, established by the Maritime Safety Committee and charged with preparation of an international code on this subject, met in November 1962. It considered two proposed sections of this code covering, respectively, inflammable solids and substances liable to spontaneous combustion, and miscellaneous dangerous substances.

Facilitation of Travel and Transport

A working group, established by the Council and charged, in particular, with simplifying shipping documents and procedures of a governmental nature, met in November 1962. It established three subgroups to study the specific aspects of customs, health, and immigration. The working group, in drawing up terms of reference for the subgroups, expressed the view that their long-term aim should be directed toward the establishment by IMCO of an international convention on facilitation of travel and transport. This convention might be considered the maritime counterpart of work done by ICAO in the field of international civil aviation.

International Code of Signals

A subcommittee, set up by the Maritime Safety Committee and charged with revision of this Code which was drawn up in 1931, met in May 1962. The revised Code will be prepared in nine languages—English, French, German, Greek, Italian, Japanese, Norwegian, Russian, and Spanish. WHO and ILO have been asked to prepare an up-to-date medical section.

Tonnage Measurement

A working group, established by the Sub-Committee on Tonnage Measurement to study specific points, met in November 1962. It will report its findings to the Sub-Committee.

Subdivision and Stability Problems

A subcommittee, established by the Maritime Safety Committee, is charged with studying watertight subdivision of passenger ships, the practicability of extending subdivision and damage stability requirements to cargo ships and the possible formulation of related international standards, and the intact stability and standards of stability information of passenger, cargo, and fishing vessels, with the possible formulation of related international standards. This subcommittee met in May 1962 and set up two working groups.

INTERNATIONAL TRADE ORGANIZATION (ITO) *(not yet established)*

GENERAL AGREEMENT ON TARIFFS AND TRADE (GATT)

Origin and Background

In the 1930's, when the world was suffering from an intense economic depression, many governments attempted to take shelter behind various kinds of protective trade barriers such as high tariff protection, quota restrictions on imports and exports, and exchange controls. It became evident during the Second World War that these restrictions might become permanently fastened upon the world unless a resolute attempt was made to re-establish as soon as possible the pre-depression pattern of multilateral trading between nations. The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) is today the major result of the efforts which were made in that direction.

In 1946 the United Nations Economic and Social Council resolved to convene an international conference on trade and employment and established a Preparatory Committee to prepare a draft convention for an international trade organization. A draft charter was adopted by the Preparatory Committee in August 1947; it formed the basis for the work of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Employment, held in Havana from November 21, 1947, to March 24, 1948. That Conference drew up a charter for an International Trade Organization (ITO)—known as the Havana Charter—and established an Interim Commission for the International Trade Organization (ICITO).

The main task of the Interim Commission was to prepare for the first session of ITO. This task, so far as events could be foreseen, was completed in 1949, but as a result of lack of acceptances of the Havana Charter, it became evident that the establishment of ITO would have to be abandoned.

While the Charter for ITO was being worked out in 1947, the

governments that formed the Preparatory Committee decided to proceed forthwith with tariff negotiations among themselves. The tariff concessions resulting from these negotiations were embodied in a multilateral contract which is called the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT). It was signed on October 30, 1947, at Geneva and came into force on January 1, 1948.

Contracting Parties to GATT

On January 1, 1963, forty-four countries were Contracting Parties to GATT, and a further eight countries were participating in the work of the Contracting Parties under special arrangements. Their combined foreign trade represented over four-fifths of total world trade.

In 1960 a number of dependent territories, to which the General Agreement had been applied for many years, achieved independence or self-government. To give these new states time to consider their future relations with GATT, the Contracting Parties recommended in November 1960, that Contracting Parties should continue to apply GATT *de facto* to each of these new states, for two years from the date of its independence. This recommendation, which applies to twenty-one states, has been extended until the GATT session of October 1963.

Main Principles of GATT and its Objectives

The essential element of the GATT story is the fact that since the Second World War, for the first time in history, countries have accepted a code of practical rules for fair trading in international commerce and have cooperated in lowering trade barriers. This cooperation has been on a global, not a regional basis.

GATT is an international multilateral contract whose stated objectives are: (a) to help raise standards of living; (b) to achieve full employment; (c) to develop the world's resources; (d) to expand production and exchange of goods; and (e) to promote economic development.

These objectives were formulated when the Agreement was drafted in 1947. In recent years the emphasis has been more especially upon the expansion of trade, the removal of barriers to trade, and the trade problems of less developed countries.

Although the text of GATT³ is admittedly complicated it contains, in essence, three fundamental principles.

³ The up-to-date text of the General Agreement is contained in *Basic Instruments and Selected Documents, Volume III*, published by the GATT secretariat.

The first principle is that trade should be conducted on the basis of non-discrimination. Accordingly, all Contracting Parties are bound by the most-favored-nation clause in the application of import and export duties and charges and in their administration.

The second principle is that protection shall be afforded to domestic industries exclusively through the customs tariff and not through other commercial measures. Thus, the use of import quotas as a means of protection is explicitly prohibited. The use of import quotas for other purposes—notably to safeguard the balance of payments—is governed by a series of criteria and conditions, coupled with procedures for consultations.

The third principle, inherent throughout GATT, is the concept of consultation aimed at avoiding damage to the trading interests of Contracting Parties.

Secretariat

The GATT secretariat consists of a number of specialists under the direction of the Executive Secretary, Eric Wyndham White. The secretariat offices are in Geneva. GATT's operation is financed through payments by governments. Each country's contribution is assessed in accordance with its respective percentage share of the total trade of the contracting parties and associated countries.

Budget

The budget for 1963 totals \$1,150,000.

Activities

Sessions of the Contracting Parties

Under the terms of GATT the Contracting Parties are required to meet from time to time to give effect to those provisions which require joint action. Up to the end of 1962, twenty sessions had been held. The sessions are broadly concerned with items arising out of the operation of GATT, such as the program for trade expansion, or matters may be put on the agenda by member governments as being appropriate for discussion in the GATT forum.

A Council of Representatives has been established to undertake work, both of an urgent and of a routine character, between the regular sessions of the Contracting Parties. The Council met for the first time in September 1960 and continues to meet several times a year, as required.

A significant aspect of the work of the Contracting Parties has been the settlement of complaints that benefits afforded by GATT are being nullified or impaired. A technique for dealing with complaints has been established, by which a conciliation panel—composed of representatives of countries with no direct interest in the case—examines all aspects of the complaint and reports its findings and recommendations to the Contracting Parties. In recent years the number of complaints formally presented has diminished sharply.

Reduction of Tariffs

The reduction of tariffs is laid down in the General Agreement as one of the principal means of attaining its broad objectives. There have been five main tariff-negotiating conferences under GATT: in 1947, at Geneva; in 1949, at Annecy, France; in 1951, at Torquay, England; in 1956, at Geneva; and in 1960-62, at Geneva. As a result of these conferences, the tariff rates for tens of thousands of items entering into world commerce have been reduced, or “bound” against increase.

Program for Trade Expansion

An important development in 1958 was the unanimous decision of trade ministers to establish a program of action to encourage and stimulate the expansion of international trade. (Forming a background to this program was the report by a panel of experts entitled *Trends in International Trade*—the Haberler Report—published by the GATT secretariat in October 1958.) Three committees were established. The first arranged for a further round of negotiations for the reduction of customs tariffs (the 1960-62 tariff conference). The second has tackled the problems of trade in agricultural products and, in particular, the barriers which limit access to world markets for these products; this committee has also subjected the agricultural policy of the European Economic Community to a thorough examination. The third committee is seeking to reduce the obstacles, such as tariff barriers, quantitative import restrictions, and internal taxes, which face the less developed countries in expanding their export trade with the rest of the world, thus enabling them to earn the income needed to promote their economic development.

Good progress on these lines has already been achieved. The trade expansion program was reviewed at a ministerial meeting in November 1961, and new directives were given. In 1962-63 intensive work has been undertaken toward solving the difficulties which the less developed countries face in expanding their access to markets for tropical products.

A further ministerial meeting will be held in 1963 which will carry this work forward, with special emphasis on the urgent need for

negotiating solutions to the particular problems of the less developed countries.

Regional Trade Arrangements

The General Agreement contains special rules relating to the setting up of customs unions and free-trade areas. These rules are designed to ensure that such forms of economic integration shall, in effect, lead to the reduction and elimination of barriers within the area without raising new barriers to trade with the outside world; and to ensure that a grouping of this kind is a movement toward liberalism and not an attempt to create new preferential arrangements. Thus, in recent years the Contracting Parties have given special attention to the effects on international trade of the European Economic Community, the European Free-Trade Association, and the Latin American Free-Trade Association. Trade aspects of the treaties establishing these integrated groups have been thoroughly examined and the development of these groupings is kept under review.

Removal of Quantitative Restrictions on Imports

The general prohibition on the use of quantitative restrictions on imports, together with the rule of non-discrimination, is one of the basic principles of the General Agreement. The main exception is the use of quantitative restrictions to safeguard the balance of payments and monetary reserves and, in certain circumstances, the use of such restrictions in a discriminatory way. Under GATT, import restrictions applied for balance-of-payments reasons are subject to review and consultation; the countries continuing to apply such restrictions are required to consult with the Contracting Parties annually (or every two years if they belong to the less developed country category); countries introducing new restrictions or substantially intensifying existing restrictions are also required to consult; and any country which considers that another country is applying restrictions inconsistently with the provisions of the Agreement and that its trade is adversely affected is permitted to bring the matter up for discussion and to ask for redress. On monetary questions arising in this connection, the Contracting Parties consult fully with the International Monetary Fund.

The year 1959 marked the end of the exceptional postwar conditions which led to the widespread use of quantitative restrictions for balance-of-payments reasons. Following the moves toward convertibility of certain important currencies early in 1959, the governments concerned declared firmly their intention of proceeding with the dismantling of the remaining import restrictions, and significant progress has been made toward this objective since that time.

GATT Training Program

Every six months a group of government officials, holding fellowships granted by the United Nations under its technical assistance program, joins the GATT secretariat for a period of training. Up to January 1963 nearly 100 officials had undertaken this training course, which comprises an intensive study of the General Agreement as well as of various aspects of commercial policy which are of particular interest to developing countries.

MEMBERSHIP OF THE UNITED NATIONS AND RELATED AGENCIES
(as of September 1963)

	UN	IAEA	ILO	FAO ¹	UNES- CO ²	WHO ³	FUND	BANK	IFC	IDA	ICAO	UFU ⁴	ITU ⁵	WMO ⁶	IMCO ⁷
Afghanistan	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	
Albania	x	x	x		x	x						x	x	x	
Algeria	x		x		x	x					x	x	x	x	
Argentina	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Australia	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Austria	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Belgium	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x
Bolivia	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Brazil	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Bulgaria	x	x	x		x	x						x	x	x	
Burma	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Burundi	x		x		x	x						x		x	
Byelorussian SSR	x	x	x		x	x						x	x	x	
Cambodia	x	x		x	x	x					x	x	x	x	x
Cameroon	x		x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x
Canada	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Central African Rep.	x		x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	
Ceylon	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Chad	x		x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	

See page 551 for footnote references

	UN	IAEA	ILO	FAO ¹	UNES- CO ²	WHO ³	FUND	BANK	IFC	IDA	ICAO	UPU ⁴	ITU ⁵	WMO ⁶	IMCO ⁷
Chile	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
China	x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x
Colombia	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Congo (Brazzaville)	x		x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	
Congo (Leopoldville)	x	x	x	x	x	x					x	x	x	x	
Costa Rica	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Cuba	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	
Cyprus	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	
Czechoslovakia	x	x	x		x	x					x	x	x	x	
Dahomey	x		x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	
Denmark	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Dominican Republic	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Ecuador	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
El Salvador	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Ethiopia	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Fed. of Malaya	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Finland	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
France	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Gabon	x		x	x	x	x					x	x	x	x	
Germany, Fed. Rep. of		x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

See page 551 for footnote references

	UN	IAEA	ILO	FAO ¹	UNES- CO ²	WHO ³	FUND	BANK	IFC	IDA	ICAO	UPU ⁴	ITU ⁵	WMO ⁶	IMCO ⁷
Ghana	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Greece	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Guatemala	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Guinea	x		x	x	x	x					x	x	x	x	
Haiti	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Holy See		x										x	x		
Honduras	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Hungary	x	x	x		x	x						x	x	x	
Iceland	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x
India	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Indonesia	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x
Iran	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Iraq	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Ireland	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Israel	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Italy	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Ivory Coast	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Jamaica	x		x	x	x	x	x	x			x			x	
Japan	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Jordan	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Korea, Rep. of		x		x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x

See page 551 for footnote references

	UN	IAEA	ILO	FAO ¹	UNES- CO ²	WHO ³	FUND	BANK	IFC	IDA	ICAO	UPU ⁴	ITU ⁵	WMO ⁶	IMCOT
Kuwait	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Laos	x			x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	
Lebanon	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Liberia	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Libya	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Liechtenstein															
Luxembourg	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Madagascar (Malagasy Rep.)	x		x	x	x	x					x	x	x	x	x
Mali	x	x	x	x	x	x					x	x	x	x	
Mauritania	x		x	x	x	x					x		x	x	x
Mexico	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Monaco		x			x	x						x	x		
Mongolia	x				x	x								x	
Morocco	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Nepal	x			x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x		
Netherlands	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
New Zealand	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Nicaragua	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Niger	x		x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	
Nigeria	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

See page 551 for footnote references

	UN	IAEA	ILO	FAO ¹	UNES- CO ²	WHO ³	FUND	BANK	IFC	IDA	ICAO	UFU ⁴	ITU ⁵	WMO ⁶	IMCO ⁷
Norway	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Pakistan	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Panama	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x
Paraguay	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Peru	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Philippines	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Poland	x	x	x	x	x	x					x	x	x	x	x
Portugal	x	x	x	x		x	x	x			x	x	x	x	
Rhodesia & Nyasaland, Fed. of													x		
Romania	x	x	x	x	x	x						x	x	x	
Rwanda	x		x		x	x						x	x	x	
San Marino												x			
Saudi Arabia	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Senegal	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Sierra Leone	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Somalia	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		
South Africa	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Spain	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Sudan	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Sweden	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

See page 551 for footnote references

	UN	IAEA	ILO	FAO ¹	UNES- CO ²	WHO ³	FUND	BANK	IFC	IDA	ICAO	UPU ⁴	ITU ⁵	WMO ⁶	IMCO ⁷
Switzerland		x	x	x	x	x					x	x	x	x	x
Syria	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x
Tanganyika	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Thailand	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Togo	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	
Trinidad and Tobago	x		x		x	x					x			x	
Tunisia	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Turkey	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Uganda	x		x		x	x								x	
Ukrainian SSR	x	x	x		x	x						x	x	x	
USSR	x	x	x		x	x						x	x	x	x
United Arab Rep.	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
United Kingdom	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
United States	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Upper Volta	x		x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	
Uruguay	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	
Venezuela	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	
Viet-Nam, Rep. of		x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	
Western Samoa						x				x	x	x	x	x	
Yemen	x			x	x	x									
Yugoslavia	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x
TOTAL	111	82	108	101 ¹	113 ²	117 ³	91	90	73	75	101	121 ⁴	118 ⁵	125 ⁶	55 ⁷

FOOTNOTES

Below are the complete names of the organizations listed on pages 545 thru 550.

IAEA	— International Atomic Energy Agency	IFC	— International Finance Corporation (Bank affiliate)
ILO	— International Labour Organisation	FUND	— International Monetary Fund
FAO	— Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations	ICAO	— International Civil Aviation Organization
UNESCO	— United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization	UPU	— Universal Postal Union
WHO	— World Health Organization	ITU	— International Telecommunication Union
BANK	— International Bank for Reconstruction and Development	WMO	— World Meteorological Organization
IDA	— International Development Association (Bank affiliate)	IMCO	— Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization

Memberships are as given by the agencies themselves. For some agencies, footnotes below give additional members not found in the tabular listing.

¹ FAO has three associate members: British Guiana; Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland; Mauritius.

² UNESCO has three associate members: Mauritius; Singapore; Qatar.

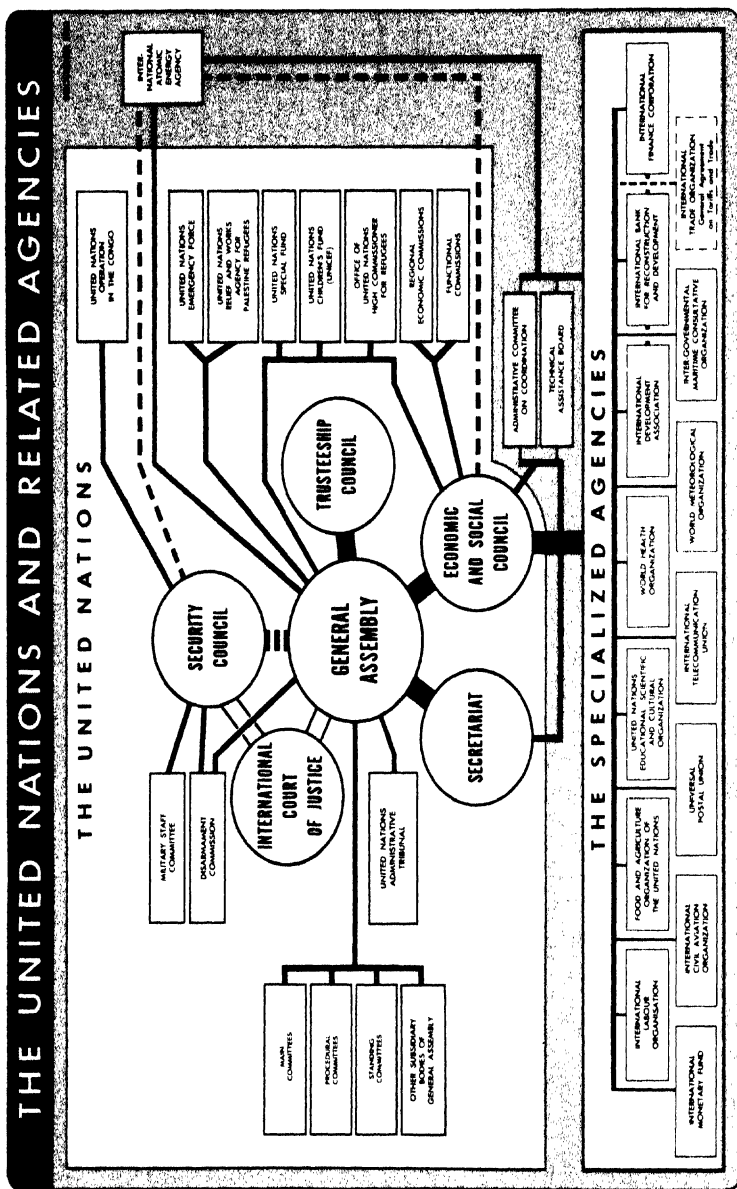
³ WHO has three associate members: Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland; Kenya; Mauritius.

⁴ UPU's 121 members include the following not given in the tabular list: Netherlands Antilles and Surinam; Portuguese Provinces in West Africa; Portuguese Provinces in East Africa, Asia and Oceania; Spanish Territories in Africa; Overseas territories for the international relations of which the Government of the United Kingdom is responsible; Whole of the Territories represented by the French Office of Overseas Posts and Telecommunications; Whole of the Territories of the United States, including the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands.

⁵ Iru's 118 members include the following not given in the tabular list: Overseas States of the French Community and French Overseas Territories; Spanish Provinces in Africa; Portuguese Overseas Provinces; Territories of the United States; Overseas Territories for the international relations of which the Government of the United Kingdom is responsible. Iru also has two associate members: British East Africa; Singapore-British Borneo Group.

⁶ WMO's 125 members include 103 states and fifteen territories maintaining their own meteorological services. Besides those included in the tabular listing, the members are: Kenya, Zanzibar, and the Seychelles; French Polynesia; French Somaliland; Hong Kong; Mauritius; Netherlands Antilles; West New Guinea (West Irian); New Caledonia; Portuguese East Africa; Portuguese West Africa; Singapore and the British Territories in Borneo; Spanish Territories of Guinea; Surinam, West Indies and other British Caribbean Territories; Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland.

⁷ IMCO has one associate member: Sarawak and North Borneo.



PART FOUR

A United Nations Chronology for 1963

A United Nations Chronology for 1963

POLITICAL AND SECURITY QUESTIONS

The Congo

January 3. United Nations troops entered Jadotville unopposed.

January 8. Moise Tshombe returned to Elisabethville. Secretary-General stated that provincial President would be held responsible for acts of destruction.

January 14. Mr. Tshombe announced his readiness to end secession of Katanga.

January 15. Secretary-General welcomed Mr. Tshombe's message. President Kasavubu and Prime Minister Adoula informed Secretary-General that Congo Government's amnesty proclamation remained in effect.

January 17. In Elisabethville, Acting United Nations Representative and General Officer Commanding Katanga Area received Mr. Tshombe and signed with him decisions for the peaceful entry of United Nations troops into Kolwezi in exercise of their freedom of movement throughout Congo.

January 21. With entry of United Nations troops into Baudouinville on January 19 and Kolwezi on January 21, freedom of movement of United Nations personnel throughout Katanga was fully established.

January 23. Joseph Ileo, Minister of State, arrived in Elisabethville and, with assistance of United Nations Operation in Congo (ONUC), began task of re-integrating South Katanga in Republic.

February 4. Secretary-General U Thant noted in report to Security Council that important phase of United Nations mandate in Congo had been fulfilled, particularly in relation to restoration of law and order, prevention of civil war, and removal of foreign military and paramilitary personnel. Secessionist activities in Katanga had been ended. United Nations armed forces in Congo would, however, be needed for some time, until Central Government could cope with problem of maintenance of law and order through its own resources. United Nations forces would be progressively reduced beginning at end of February 1963.

As for civilian operations, there would continue to be need for such assistance on massive scale during reconstruction period.

May 1. Max H. Dorsinville of Haiti resumed duties as Officer-in-Charge of ONUC, succeeding Robert K. A. Gardiner of Ghana, who had served in post since February 1962.

July 15. Report on United Nations Civilian Operations in Congo stated that since 1960 nearly \$37 million had been budgeted for aid and an additional \$19 million was programmed for 1963 operations. Some 1,149 internationally-recruited experts from 47 countries were working in Congo.

August 1. Major-General Christian R. Kaldager, of Norway, assumed his duties as Commander of United Nations Force in Congo, succeeding Lieutenant-General Kebede Gebre, of Ethiopia, who had served in that post since April 1962.

September 17. Secretary-General reported to Security Council on question of United Nations military disengagement in Congo in light of his mandate. Prime Minister Adoula had requested retention of 3,000-man United Nations Force through first half of 1964. According to U Thant, financial situation was controlling factor, and funds would be lacking as from end of 1963. Moreover, the Organization could not be expected to underwrite indefinitely the country's internal security. On the other hand, it had not been possible to arrange for United Nations participation in Congo army's training program: there might be risks in withdrawing the Force, and its continued presence might be helpful—provided its strength were not less than 5,000 officers and men.

U Thant also noted that lack of finance threatened to cripple Congo Civilian Operations; he had appealed to member states for contributions to Congo Fund, but response had been meagre.

October 18. General Assembly authorized expenditure of up to \$18.2 million for ONUC from January 1 to June 30, 1964, and approved formula for apportioning \$15 million of this expenditure among member states.

December 20. Secretary-General announced appointment of Major-General Aguiyu Ironsi of Nigeria as Commander of ONUC to succeed Major-General Christian R. Kaldager of Norway, whose term of command would expire on December 31, 1963.

Caribbean Crisis

January 7. Joint letter to United Nations Secretary-General signed by Vasily Kuznetsov, First Deputy Minister of Foreign Affairs of USSR and Adlai E. Stevenson, representative of United States to United Nations, noted appreciation of the two Governments for Secretary-General's efforts in assisting them "to avert the serious threat to the peace which recently arose in the Caribbean area."

January 7. Letter from Revolutionary Government of Cuba, signed by Carlos M. Lechuga, representative of Cuba to United Na-

tions, expressed view that negotiations carried out with Secretary-General's assistance "have not led to an effective agreement capable of guaranteeing, in a permanent way, the peace of the Caribbean and in liquidating existing tensions."

January 9. Replies by United Nations Secretary-General U Thant expressed his confidence "that all governments concerned will refrain from any action which might aggravate the situation in the Caribbean in any way."

Disarmament and Related Matters

February 12. Conference of Eighteen-Nation Committee on Disarmament reconvened at Geneva.

April 10. In report to United Nations Disarmament Commission and General Assembly, covering period November 26, 1962-April 10, 1963, Eighteen-Nation Committee stated it was continuing to devote a substantial proportion of its efforts to question of treaty on discontinuance of nuclear weapons tests.

According to progress report, the Committee had also discussed Stage I measures regarding nuclear weapons delivery vehicles and conventional armaments, and measures to be agreed on prior to general and complete disarmament, in order to facilitate its achievement.

August 5. Secretary-General U Thant witnessed in Moscow signing of partial nuclear test ban treaty between USSR, United Kingdom and United States, providing for discontinuance of nuclear weapons tests in atmosphere, outer space and under water.

September 18. In report to Disarmament Commission and General Assembly, covering period April 17 to September 1, 1963, Conference of Eighteen-Nation Committee on Disarmament reviewed Committee's consideration of nuclear test ban, measures of first stage of treaty on general and complete disarmament, and measures aimed at lessening of international tensions, at consolidation of confidence among states, and at facilitating general and complete disarmament.

October 15. Nuclear test ban treaty registered with United Nations by USSR, United Kingdom and United States.

October 17. General Assembly called for prohibition of nuclear weapons in outer space. Resolution welcomed USSR and United States expressions of intention not to station in outer space any objects carrying nuclear weapons or other weapons of mass destruction; called on all states not to orbit such weapons, install them on celestial bodies, station them in any manner in outer space, or to encourage or take part in such actions.

November 27. Assembly called upon Eighteen-Nation Disarmament Committee to resume its negotiations in accordance with joint statement of agreed principles for disarmament negotiations presented by USSR and United States in September 1961.

Assembly requested Eighteen-Nation Committee to study "urgently" question of convening conference for purpose of signing convention on prohibition of use of nuclear and thermonuclear weapons.

Assembly called on all states to become parties to the partial test-ban treaty and requested Eighteen-Nation Committee to continue "with a sense of urgency" its negotiations to achieve discontinuance of "all test explosions of nuclear weapons for all time."

Assembly noted with satisfaction initiative for denuclearization of Latin America taken in joint declaration of April 29, 1963; expressed hope that Latin American states would initiate studies concerning measures that should be agreed upon in order to achieve aims of this declaration in which heads of state of five Latin American Republics announced they were prepared to sign a multilateral Latin American agreement whereby their countries would undertake not to manufacture, receive, store or test nuclear weapons or nuclear launching devices.

Complaint by Senegal

April 17-24. Security Council took up Senegalese complaint of "repeated violations of Senegalese air space and territory" by Portugal and adopted unanimously resolution which deplored any incursion by Portuguese forces into Senegalese territory and requested Portugal to take action in accordance with its declared intentions "to prevent any violation of Senegal's sovereignty and territorial integrity."

Yemen

April 29. Secretary-General reported to Security Council that he had received from Governments of Yemen, Saudi Arabia and United Arab Republic formal confirmation of their acceptance of identical terms of disengagement in Yemen. Government of Saudi Arabia would end all support and aid to Royalists of Yemen and would prohibit use of Saudi Arabian territory by Royalist leaders for purpose of carrying on struggle in Yemen. United Arab Republic undertook to begin withdrawal from Yemen of troops sent on request of new Government. Terms also included establishment of demilitarized zone on each side of Saudi Arabian-Yemen border, stationing of impartial observers, and visit by General Von Horn to consult on nature and functioning of United Nations observers in implementation of terms of disengagement.

May 27. Secretary-General reported that, on basis of information provided by General Von Horn, United Nations observers in area were vitally necessary and should be dispatched without delay.

June 10. Security Council met at request of USSR representative who stated in letter that Council alone was competent to take decisions relating to international peace and security.

June 11. Security Council endorsed establishment of United Nations Observation Mission in Yemen, its expenses to be met by Saudi Arabia and United Arab Republic over a two-month period. Parties concerned were urged by Council to observe fully terms of disengagement and to refrain from any action which would increase tension in area.

September 4. In report to Security Council on United Nations Yemen Observation Mission (UNYOM), Secretary-General stated that, "It cannot be said at this stage that encouraging progress has been made toward effective implementation of the disengagement agreement." Accordingly, after an approach to both parties concerned (Saudi Arabia and United Arab Republic), Secretary-General had received oral assurances that both Governments agreed to defray expenses of UNYOM for two more months.

October 31. In supplementary report on work of United Nations Yemen Observation Mission, Secretary-General stated that he had received message from Government of Saudi Arabia that it had decided to participate in financing of UNYOM for further period of two months from November 5, 1963. Since United Arab Republic had previously said that Mission should be extended, and in view of fact that Government of Yemen had indicated that such an extension would be desirable and helpful, Mission would be continued.

November 4. Pier P. Spinelli, Under-Secretary and Director of European Office of United Nations, appointed temporarily as Special Representative of Secretary-General in Yemen in which capacity he would also head United Nations Observation Mission.

November 11. In supplementary report, Secretary-General stated that he had held informal consultations with Council members on continuation of UNYOM for another two months after November 4, and that there had been no objection to the extension.

West Irian (West New Guinea)

May 1. After seven months of international administration, authority over West Irian (West New Guinea) passed from United Nations Temporary Executive Authority (UNTEA) to Republic of Indonesia. At time of transfer, territory's official name became West Irian.

November 6. General Assembly took note of report by Secretary-General on implementation of Agreement of August 15, 1962 between Netherlands and Indonesia, concerning West Irian (West New Guinea). Report noted United Nations readiness to assist Indonesian Government in implementation of remaining parts of Agreement, relating to act of free choice by inhabitants of territory, and establishment of United Nations fund to assist Government of Indonesia in economic and social development of West Irian.

South Africa

May 6. In its first interim report, Special Committee on Policies of *Apartheid* of Government of Republic of South Africa charged that South African Government had created "explosive situation" through increasingly repressive measures. In letter of transmittal to Security Council, Committee chairman stated desirability of Council action in view of situation which represented "a serious threat to international peace and security."

July 17. Second interim report of Special Committee recommended among other things that Security Council urge South Africa to abandon its racial policies, demand release of those opposing such policies, and call upon member states to take measures recommended by Assembly, beginning with embargo on arms, ammunition and petroleum, and including blockade, if necessary, under aegis of United Nations.

August 7. Security Council called on South Africa to abandon its racial policy of *apartheid* and to liberate all those imprisoned for opposing this policy. Council also called for embargo on sale or shipment of arms and ammunition to South Africa.

September 16. Report of Special Committee on *Apartheid* to Security Council and General Assembly contained recommendations for further action and statement that Special Committee felt these two organs should consider without further delay measures providing for stronger political, diplomatic and economic sanctions, suspension of rights and privileges of South Africa as member state and expulsion from United Nations and its specialized agencies.

October 11. General Assembly requested South African Government "to abandon the arbitrary trial now in progress and forthwith to grant unconditional release to all political prisoners and to all persons imprisoned, interned or subjected to other restrictions for having opposed the policy of *apartheid*," and requested all member states to make efforts to induce South Africa to put these provisions into effect "immediately." Assembly also condemned South African Government for its failure to comply with United Nations resolutions.

December 4. Security Council urgently requested South Africa to "cease forthwith" its discriminatory and repressive measures, again called upon it to liberate all persons imprisoned or subjected to other restrictions for having opposed policy of *apartheid*, and called for extension of arms embargo to include equipment and materials for manufacture and maintenance of arms and ammunition in South Africa.

Resolution also asked that small expert group be established by Secretary-General to examine methods of resolving present situation in South Africa "through full, peaceful and orderly application of human rights and fundamental freedoms to all inhabitants of the territory as

a whole" and invited South Africa to avail itself of assistance of this group to bring about peaceful and orderly transformation.

December 16. General Assembly adopted (i) a resolution appealing to all states to intensify their efforts "separately and collectively" to dissuade South Africa from pursuing its policies of *apartheid*; and (ii) a resolution requesting Secretary-General to seek ways and means of providing relief and assistance to families of those persecuted by South Africa for opposing *apartheid* policies.

Haitian Complaint

May 8-9. Security Council took up a Haitian complaint of "repeated threats of aggression and attempts at interference" on part of Dominican Republic against Haiti which constituted a danger to international peace and security. In accordance with opinions expressed in Council and in agreement with parties concerned, initiative in matter was left to Organization of American States (OAS). Item remains on Council's agenda.

Admission of New Members

May 14. Kuwait admitted to membership in United Nations.

December 16. Kenya and Zanzibar admitted to membership in United Nations, bringing total membership of Organization to 113.

Malaysia

August 5. Federation of Malaya, Indonesia and Philippines asked Secretary-General to send working teams to North Borneo (Sabah) and Sarawak to ascertain whether recent elections there were free and properly conducted, and whether Malaysia was a major issue, if not the major issue, in those elections.

August 13. Members of United Nations Malaysian Mission, set up by Secretary-General on request of Federation of Malaya, Indonesia and Philippines, left for North Borneo and Sarawak to undertake a survey in accordance with above request.

September 14. United Nations Malaysian Mission reported to Secretary-General that great majority of people of Sabah (North Borneo) and Sarawak favored participation of the two territories in proposed Federation of Malaysia. On same day, Secretary-General made public his conclusions on findings of Malaysian Mission. In his conclusions, Secretary-General stated his belief that majority of people of Sabah and Sarawak wished to bring their dependent status to an end and to realize their independence through freely chosen association with other peoples in their region with whom they felt they had common ties.

Israel-Syria

August 23-September 3. Security Council discussed complaint of Israel dated August 20 and complaint of Syria dated August 21 concerning border incidents; on September 3, Council failed to adopt—because of negative vote of permanent member—draft resolution which would have condemned “wanton murder” of two Israeli citizens.

South Viet-Nam

September 23. Exchange of correspondence between Secretary-General and President Ngo Dinh Diem of Republic of Viet-Nam issued. Included letter of August 31 from Secretary-General expressing “grave concern” of Asian and African member states at situation in Republic of Viet-Nam, and relaying to President Diem their request that Vietnamese Government take all necessary steps to normalize situation by ensuring exercise of fundamental human rights to all sections of population. In reply of September 5, President Diem assured Secretary-General that there had been no suppression of Buddhists in Viet-Nam and that his Government had acted only to free Buddhist hierarchy from outside pressure and to shield development of Buddhism from an external influence working against interest of Buddhist religion and against higher interests of the State.

October 8. General Assembly agreed that its President, Carlos Sosa Rodriguez of Venezuela, should act on letter dated October 4 from Government of Republic of Viet-Nam inviting United Nations inquiry mission to visit that country to “see for themselves what the real situation is.”

October 11. Seven-member fact-finding mission named by Assembly President to investigate situation regarding relations between Government of South Viet-Nam and Buddhist community.

December 13. General Assembly received report of Fact-Finding Mission to South Viet-Nam which visited that territory from October 24 to November 3 to ascertain situation regarding alleged violations of human rights by Government in its relations with Buddhist community. Decided that in light of recent events in Viet-Nam, it would not be useful to discuss matter at this time, and no further action was required.

Elections to Security Council

October 18. Bolivia and Ivory Coast elected to membership on Security Council for two-year term.

November 1. Czechoslovakia elected to seat on Council for one

year following announcement by President of General Assembly that an informal arrangement had been reached whereby seat would be taken for following year by Malaysia. [Members of Council retiring at end of 1963: Ghana, Philippines, Venezuela.]

Representation of China

October 21. General Assembly rejected by vote of 41 to 57, with 12 abstentions, draft resolution by Albania and Cambodia which would have removed "representatives of Chiang Kai-shek" from United Nations and invited "Government of the People's Republic of China to send representatives to occupy China's place in the United Nations and all its organs."

Effects of Atomic Radiation

November 11. General Assembly adopted unanimously resolution which recommended that member governments carry out information programs on effects of atomic radiation; urged World Meteorological Organization to implement scheme for monitoring and reporting levels of radioactivity, and requested Scientific Committee on Effects of Atomic Radiation to continue its program.

International Cooperation Year

November 21. General Assembly adopted resolution designating 1965—twentieth year of United Nations—as International Cooperation Year.

Palestine Refugees

November 15. Secretary-General announced appointment of Laurence Michelmore (United States) as Commissioner-General of UNRWA to succeed John H. Davis (United States) whose resignation became effective December 31, 1963.

December 3. General Assembly adopted resolution in which it noted "with deep regret" that repatriation or compensation of Palestine refugees had not been effected, that no substantial progress had been made in program for their reintegration, and that therefore their situation continued to be "a matter of serious concern." Assembly called on United Nations Conciliation Commission for Palestine to continue its efforts, again directed attention to precarious financial position of UNRWA and urged increased contributions from governments.

Assembly also expressed appreciation to retiring Commissioner-General of UNRWA, John H. Davis, and his staff.

Korean Question

December 13. General Assembly reaffirmed United Nations objectives in Korea to establish by peaceful means a "unified independent and democratic Korea" under representative government, and full restoration of international peace and security in area; requested United Nations Commission for Unification and Rehabilitation of Korea (UNCURK) to continue its work.

Outer Space

December 13. Declaration of legal principles governing exploration of outer space adopted by General Assembly. Declaration stated that outer space and celestial bodies were not subject to national appropriation and that their use was for benefit of all mankind. Assembly also endorsed establishment of a World Weather Watch and recognized potential of space satellites in expanding global communications.

Representation on Security Council and Economic and Social Council

December 17. After recognizing necessity for more adequate geographical representation on Security Council and Economic and Social Council, General Assembly decided to adopt amendments to Charter, increasing membership of Security Council to 15 and membership of Economic and Social Council to 27, and called upon all members of United Nations to ratify the amendments.

[Amendments to Charter require ratification by two-thirds of United Nations members, including all permanent members of Security Council.]

Charter Review

December 17. General Assembly decided to keep in being Committee on Arrangements for Conference for Purpose of Reviewing United Nations Charter, and asked it to report to twentieth Assembly session [1965].

Membership of General Committee

December 17. General Assembly decided to increase membership of its steering committee to 25.

Cyprus

December 27. Security Council met to take up complaint by Cyprus that Turkey had committed "aggression" against Cyprus and had interfered in its internal affairs. Heard statements by Cyprus, Turkey and Greece. Adjourned following statement by Council President that Council would be reconvened after consultations when and if it were considered appropriate by Council members.

United Nations Emergency Force

December 30. Major-General Carlos Flores Paiva Chaves of Brazil appointed Commander of United Nations Emergency Force, to succeed Lieutenant-General P. S. Gyani of India, who had served in that post since December 1959.

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL QUESTIONS

United Nations Conference on Application of Science and Technology for Benefit of Less Developed Areas

February 4-20. Geneva. Explored question of how to accelerate development through application of latest advances of science and technology, with special emphasis on development of economy of less developed countries through better use of human, raw material and energy resources.

Economic Commission for Africa

February 18-March 2. Fifth session, Leopoldville. Called for action by Economic and Social Council on questions related to membership in ECA and representation of African countries on Council. Adopted resolutions on agriculture, trade, development planning, disarmament, and training, and on attendance of Portugal and South Africa at United Nations meetings in Africa. Invited its membership to appropriate, as from 1965, 4 per cent of total national income for education in accordance with Addis Ababa plan.

Economic Commission for Asia and Far East

March 5-18. Nineteenth session, Manila. Called for meeting of high-level government representatives to further Asian economic development on regional level. Urged further contributions to Asian Institute for Economic Development and Planning, scheduled to be-

gin operations in Bangkok in January 1964. Adopted resolutions on development of Asian trade and industry, technical assistance, co-operatives, development of Mekong River Basin and of Asian Highway.

Economic Commission for Latin America

March 6-17. Tenth session, Mar del Plata, Argentina. Decided to give top priority to studies related to United Nations Conference on Trade and Development and requested Secretariat to organize seminar in order to enable countries of region to adopt a "concerted position" at Conference. Also decided to assign special importance to activities concerning formation of Latin American Common Market. Set up an advisory group on economic information and publicity. Adopted resolutions on economic and social development, trade, agriculture, housing, income distribution, education, financing policies, industry, planning, demography, and natural resources.

Human Rights

April 2. Commission on Human Rights adopted Draft Declaration on Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination and asked Economic and Social Council to submit it to General Assembly.

April 3. Requested Subcommittee on Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities to draw up draft declaration on elimination of all forms of religious intolerance.

Economic and Social Council

April 2-18. Thirty-fifth session, New York. Authorized continuing study of proposed declaration on international economic cooperation. Decided to convene fourth regional cartographic conference for Asia and Far East in 1964. Called on governments to review efficacy of capital punishment as a deterrent to crime and asked for further studies in this field.

Decided to convene Second World Population Conference in 1965, and asked for intensification of demographic studies, research and training. Approved relief measures, and called for further aid to victims of earthquake in Libya, floods in Morocco and a volcanic eruption in Indonesia (Bali). Adopted other resolutions on transport development and standardization of geographical names.

Fifteenth Anniversary of Universal Declaration

April 15. Recommendations of Commission on Human Rights for commemoration of fifteenth anniversary of Universal Declaration

of Human Rights on December 10, 1963 endorsed by Economic and Social Council.

Economic Commission for Europe

April 18-May 4. Eighteenth session, Geneva. Decided to set up group of government experts to study questions related to trade between East and West. Called for meeting of government experts to study questions relating to hydraulic resources in Europe. Adopted other resolutions for studies in field of industry and air pollution.

Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy

April 26. Suggestion of Secretary-General that third United Nations International Conference on Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy be held in Geneva, August 31 to September 9, 1964, agreed to by United Nations Scientific Advisory Committee.

World Food Program

May 13-18. UN/FAO Intergovernmental Committee on World Food Program, Rome. Approved projects using food services worth \$6.5 million to support economic development plans in Bolivia, Morocco, Sudan, Syria, Tanganyika and United Arab Republic.

June 4-18. World Food Congress, convened by FAO. Assessed world-wide problem of hunger and malnutrition and explored means for its solution.

Technical Assistance

June 2. According to report issued by Technical Assistance Board, 124 countries and territories received direct assistance from expanded program in 1961-1962, while 21 more participated in regional projects. In all, 2,552 experts were in field in 1962, working in 119 countries and territories, and a total of 5,860 fellowships were awarded during the two-year period. Total obligations incurred under expanded program during 1961-1962 amounted to \$89.7 million including \$13.8 million for administrative and operating costs.

United Nations Special Fund

June 5. Governing Council, tenth session. Approved 41 new projects for less developed countries, bringing total number approved to 327 at total cost of approximately \$672 million.

United Nations Children's Fund

June 20, 21. Executive Board of UNICEF voted \$13.2 million in new commitments for 105 projects in 55 countries to meet needs of children and youth.

Economic and Social Council

July 5-August 2. Thirty-sixth session, Geneva. Decided to hold United Nations Conference on Trade and Development from March 23 to June 15, 1964. Set up advisory committee on application of science and technology to development. Approved plan for United Nations Training and Research Institute. Decided to expel Portugal from Economic Commission for Africa and to suspend South Africa from that body. Urged further study of economic and social consequences of disarmament, particularly on commodity trade. Transmitted to Assembly UNESCO plan for 10-year campaign against illiteracy.

Adopted resolutions on economic and social development and planning, water resources, technical assistance, trade, World Food Program, control of narcotic drugs, human rights, cartography, road traffic convention, and industrial development activities of United Nations.

Approved recommendation admitting Western Samoa to ECAFE membership and enlarging geographical scope of Commission to include Western Samoa, Australia and New Zealand.

Adopted resolutions on representation of African states on Council and increase of Council membership.

Asked for further assistance to Yugoslavia for relief to victims of earthquake at Skopje.

African Development Bank

August 4. Agreement establishing African Development Bank with capital of \$250 million adopted by finance ministers of 33 African countries meeting at Khartoum.

United Nations Conference on International Travel and Tourism

August 21-September 6. Rome. Approved series of recommendations on tourism as factor of economic development, organization and promotion of tourism, facilities and services for travelers, and technical assistance, including training, for development of tourism in all countries.

Refugees

October 7. 1964 program of United Nations High Commissioner approved by Executive Committee for High Commissioner's Program, with allocations amounting to over \$1.5 million. Included projects for refugees in Europe, Africa, Asia and Latin America.

November 27. General Assembly re-elected Felix Schnyder as High Commissioner for Refugees for another two years.

November 29. Equivalent of \$1.5 million in cash or kind pledged by 31 governments for 1964 program of High Commissioner for Refugees at meeting of *Ad Hoc* Committee for Announcement of Voluntary Contributions to that program.

December 9. Equivalent of \$32.5 million in cash or kind pledged by 30 governments for 1964 program of United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees at meeting of *Ad Hoc* Committee for Announcement of Voluntary Contributions to UNRWA.

December 12. United Nations High Commissioner requested by General Assembly to pursue his efforts on behalf of refugees, giving particular attention to new refugee groups; member states invited to continue to support alleviation of refugee problems. Membership of Executive Committee of High Commissioner's Program increased to 30.

Assistance to Disaster Victims

October 14. General Assembly took note of assistance given victims of earthquake which destroyed city of Skopje in Yugoslavia; endorsed recommendations of Economic and Social Council inviting member states to consider what further aid they might offer to Yugoslavia; appealed for assistance in execution of five-year plan for reconstruction of Skopje.

November 1. Asked for assistance by United Nations, member states and non-governmental organizations to victims of hurricane which struck Caribbean area—especially territories of Cuba, Dominican Republic, Haiti, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago.

Technical Assistance

October 15. As announced at close of annual pledging conference, it appeared that contributions to expanded program of technical assistance and United Nations Special Fund, including United States matching contribution, would total at least \$132.4 million in 1964.

December 11. General Assembly authorized use of funds for provision of operational personnel by all organizations participating in expanded program of technical assistance, on experimental basis for

two years. Confirmed allocation of \$46.3 million to participating organizations for expanded program of technical assistance in 1964.

December 13. Resolution adopted by Technical Assistance Committee on establishment of training centres for information personnel in developing areas.

Membership of Economic and Social Council

October 18. General Assembly elected Algeria, Chile, Ecuador, France, Iraq and Luxembourg to Economic and Social Council to fill terms of office of El Salvador, Ethiopia, France, Italy, Jordan and Uruguay, ending on December 31, 1963.

World Food Program

November 8. UN/FAO Intergovernmental Committee on World Food Program, Rome. Approved projects using food services worth \$9.4 million in British Guiana, Chile, Colombia, Ghana, India, Jamaica, Pakistan, Turkey and Yugoslavia.

Joint Declaration of Developing Countries

November 11. In resolution on United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, General Assembly welcomed "Joint Declaration of Developing Countries" as summarizing "views, needs and aspirations" of those countries and as important contribution to deliberations of Conference.

Declaration on Elimination of Racial Discrimination

November 20. United Nations Declaration on Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination adopted unanimously by General Assembly. Declaration, among other things, condemns discrimination on grounds of race, color or ethnic origin as "an offense to human dignity," a denial of Charter principles, a violation of rights proclaimed in Universal Declaration, and an obstacle to friendly and peaceful relations among nations, capable of disturbing peace and security among peoples; states that propaganda and organizations based on theories of racial or ethnic superiority shall be "severely condemned," that incitement to or acts of violence against any race shall be punishable under law and that "all States shall take immediate and positive measures," including legislative measures, "to put into effect the purposes and principles" of the Declaration.

Assembly also called on governments to take measures to implement principles of Declaration "fully, faithfully and without delay" and to give it widest possible publicity and requested that draft convention be prepared for consideration at nineteenth Assembly session.

Human Rights

December 5. General Assembly requested Secretary-General to submit report not later than at its twenty-second session on new developments with respect to law and practice concerning death penalty and new contributions of criminal sciences in the matter.

Called attention of member states to desirability of appointing qualified women to bodies responsible for preparation of national development plans and asked for aid to developing countries to provide requisite training facilities to make effective participation by women in economic and social development possible.

Requested that Commission on Status of Women be invited to prepare draft declaration on elimination of discrimination against women for possible consideration by Assembly at its twentieth session [1965].

Urged Economic and Social Council to reconsider its decision to cancel 1964 meeting of Commission on Human Rights. Called upon Council in electing members of Commission, to bear in mind principle of equitable geographical distribution, particularly in relation to Africa.

December 10. Fifteenth anniversary of Universal Declaration of Human Rights commemorated.

December 12. General Assembly reaffirmed its belief that final adoption of draft International Covenants on Human Rights was "urgent and essential" for universal protection and promotion of such rights; decided to make special effort to complete adoption of entire text of draft Covenants at its nineteenth session.

Decided to designate 1968 as International Year for Human Rights; invited all member states to intensify their "domestic efforts" in field of human rights so that fuller and more effective realization of these rights and freedoms might be achieved.

December 13. Economic and Social Council decided to hold session of Human Rights Commission at United Nations Headquarters, February 17 to March 13, 1964.

Housing, Building and Planning

December 5. General Assembly expressed concern at "critical deficiency" of housing and related amenities in developing countries due to over-rapid urbanization in a setting of slow economic and industrial growth and scarce resources; called for action on part of governments and United Nations bodies to expedite building program, especially in field of low-income housing and environmental development.

Resolution also recommended preparation of suitable targets in housing and environmental development consistent with those of De-

velopment Decade and formulation of practical methods and criteria for establishing appropriate standards in field of housing, building and planning.

United Nations Children's Fund

December 5. General Assembly commended work of Children's Fund; recommended that governments, when planning economic and social development, take into account needs of children and youth; requested member states to continue to contribute maximum financial support to UNICEF program.

Community Action

December 5. General Assembly emphasized community action was valuable and effective instrument for achieving economic and social development and requested that special attention be given to present and possible future contributions of such action toward attainment of objectives of United Nations Development Decade; called for programs, which make use of community action, at national and international level to promote development, especially in sectors of marginal employment and in coordination with land reform; recommended provision of technical and financial aid.

World Social Situation

December 5. General Assembly noted unsatisfactory progress in raising levels of living in areas where need is greatest and continuing "vast disparities" in income; invited Council to consider effective means of translating social objectives of United Nations Development Decade into concrete realities; requested program of social development be prepared, with specific major targets to be achieved by end of Development Decade [1970].

Conference on Asian Economic Cooperation

December 6. Ministerial conference concluded at Manila. Adopted resolution expressing determination of Asian countries to take practical measures to promote regional cooperation in fields of trade, industry, banking, freight rates and air transport.

Asian Population Conference

December 10-20. Delhi. Discussed effects of population growth on economic and social development. Recommended that national population policies should be considered an integral part of development

plans. Also recommended greater cooperation among governments for training of demographers, technical assistance and pooling of information on family planning.

Economic and Social Consequences of Disarmament

December 11. Resolution on conversion to peaceful needs of resources released by disarmament adopted by General Assembly. It called for further study of problems in international economic and trade relations, particularly in relation to primary commodities; expressed hope that member states, particularly those significantly involved, would continue to pursue studies and activities relating to economic and social consequences of disarmament, to problems it would entail for them and to means of dealing with those problems; hoped that all governments would intensify their efforts to achieve agreement on general and complete disarmament under effective international control.

Development Financing

December 11. General Assembly decided to extend mandate of Committee on a United Nations Capital Development Fund and requested study of practical steps to transform United Nations Special Fund into a Capital Development Fund in such a way as to include both pre-investment and investment activities.

Requested Economic and Social Council to consider establishment of standing committee or other appropriate machinery to keep under constant review against background of total capital resources, the inflow of international assistance and development capital to developing countries as well as outflow of capital from those countries.

Industrial Development

December 11. General Assembly endorsed view that present institutional framework of United Nations activities in field of industrial development was not satisfactory and requested report on possible establishment of organization in this field; asked for consultations on advisability of holding international symposium—not later than 1966—on problems of industrialization of developing countries.

Science and Technology

December 11. Advisory Committee on Application of Science and Technology to Development requested by General Assembly to examine possibility of establishing program of international cooperation in this field. Assembly also asked for continued study of role of patents in transfer of technology to developing countries.

Economic and Social Development

December 11. General Assembly invited Economic and Social Council to expedite work on question of declaration on international economic cooperation.

Asked for studies on question of supplying food in connection with literacy campaigns; adopted resolution on world campaign for universal literacy calling for technical and financial assistance to national efforts for eradication of illiteracy.

Appealed to all non-governmental organizations to put their resources into world campaign against hunger, disease and ignorance, to begin in 1965, and to continue throughout the United Nations Development Decade.

Adopted resolution on promotion of agrarian reform, encouraging carrying out of land reform programs, strengthening of technical assistance and increased financial aid.

Asked that steps be taken to establish a United Nations training and research institute, if possible in first half of 1964.

Adopted resolution on planning for economic development, requesting increased assistance to regional planning institutes.

Increased membership of United Nations Special Fund from 18 to 24 and membership of UN/FAO Intergovernmental Committee on World Food Program from 20 to 24.

Adopted resolution on decentralization of economic and social activities of United Nations and strengthening of regional economic commissions; among other things, recommended establishment of technical assistance coordination unit in United Nations Office in Beirut.

Promotion of Ideals of Peace, Respect and Understanding

December 13. General Assembly decided to circulate for comment draft Declaration on Promotion among Youth of Ideals of Peace, Mutual Respect and Understanding between Peoples and to give priority at its nineteenth session to final elaboration of Declaration; requested study be made of desirability of establishing regional institutes for training of young people in greater understanding of their common ideals.

Economic and Social Council—

Resumed Thirty-Sixth Session

December 16. Requested Secretary-General to amend classifications and list of dangerous goods in "1956 Recommendations" on subject; shortened name of committee dealing with this field of United

Nations activity to "Committee of Experts on Transport of Dangerous Goods."

Called upon member governments to consider and implement recommendations of 1963 Conference on International Travel and Tourism.

December 19. As suggested by General Assembly, decided to enlarge its Economic, Social and Coordinating Committees by 9, thereby increasing membership of these bodies to 27.

QUESTIONS CONCERNING TRUSTEESHIP AND NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES

Trusteeship Council

May 29-June 26. Thirtieth session. Reviewed conditions in remaining three United Nations trust territories—Pacific Islands, a strategic area under United States administration, and New Guinea and Nauru, both under Australian administration. Decided to send visiting mission to Pacific Islands in early 1964. Examined petitions and granted an oral hearing. Discussed question of cooperation with Special Committee on Situation with regard to Implementation of Declaration on Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples (Special Committee of 24); use of scholarships offered by member states for inhabitants of trust territories; and dissemination of information on United Nations and Trusteeship System in those territories.

December 16. General Assembly took note of annual report of Trusteeship Council and report of Secretary-General on dissemination of information on offers by member states of study and training facilities for inhabitants of trust territories; called upon administering authorities to take account of recommendations and observations contained in Council's report.

Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories

April 15-May 10. Fourteenth session. Surveyed developments in 53 dependent territories on which information was submitted by Administering Authorities—Australia, New Zealand, Spain, United Kingdom and United States. Adopted special report on economic development in territories.

December 16. General Assembly decided to dissolve Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories and to request

Special Committee of 24 to take over its functions. Approved report on economic advancement in non-self-governing territories. Urged member states to continue to offer scholarships. Invited administering authorities concerned to take necessary measure to ensure that all scholarship and training facilities were made use of by inhabitants of non-self-governing territories.

***Special Committee on Situation with Regard to
Implementation of Declaration on Granting of
Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples***

February 20-October 21. Special Committee of 24 held three sessions during which it adopted resolutions on following territories: Southern Rhodesia; Portuguese territories; South West Africa; Aden; Malta; Fiji; Northern Rhodesia; Nyasaland; Basutoland, Bechuanaland and Swaziland; and Gambia. Reached agreement by consensus on Zanzibar and Kenya. Reported to General Assembly on these territories, along with its conclusions and recommendations, and on its consideration of British Guiana, Gibraltar, Fernando Poo, Ifni, Rio Muni and Spanish Sahara.

December 11. Assembly requested Special Committee of 24 to continue to seek best ways and means for immediate and total application of Declaration to all territories which have not yet attained independence. Approved Committee's report and called on administering powers to implement its conclusions and recommendations, and deeply regretted refusal of certain administering powers to cooperate with Special Committee and their disregard of Assembly resolutions. Special Committee was invited to apprise Security Council of developments in any of territories examined by Committee which might threaten international peace and security.

Portuguese Territories

April 4. Special Committee of 24 adopted resolution condemning Portugal for its attitude concerning territories under its administration and drawing "immediate" attention of Security Council to situation in territories with view to its taking appropriate measures, including sanctions, to secure Portugal's compliance with General Assembly and Security Council resolutions.

July 31. Security Council adopted resolution which, among other things, affirmed that policies of Portugal in claiming its "over-seas territories" as integral parts of metropolitan Portugal were contrary to principles of Charter, and "determined" that situation in Portuguese territories was seriously disturbing peace and security in Africa.

Council also called on Portugal to recognize immediately right of peoples of territories to self-determination and independence; to cease all acts of repression; to withdraw its military and other forces employed for that purpose; to promulgate a political amnesty; to allow functioning of political parties, to negotiate with them with a view to transferring power to freely elected political institutions, and to grant independence "immediately thereafter."

Council requested all states to refrain from any assistance which would enable Portugal to continue its repression, and to prevent the sale and supply of arms and military equipment for that purpose. Secretary-General was asked to report to Council by October 31, 1963.

October 31. Secretary-General submitted his report which included replies received from 55 governments on question of arms supplies, noted the invitation extended by Portugal for conversations and subsequent visit to Lisbon by Under-Secretary for Trusteeship and Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, and reported on talks held between Portugal and African States at United Nations Headquarters.

December 3. General Assembly requested Security Council to consider "immediately" question of territories under Portuguese administration and adopt necessary measures to give effect to its own decisions, particularly those contained in its resolution of July 31, 1963.

December 11. Security Council agreed to reaffirm interpretation of self-determination given in Assembly resolution to effect that "all peoples have right to . . . freely determine their political status . . ."

Council expressed regret that talks between representatives of African states and Portugal had not achieved desired results because of failure to reach agreement on "United Nations interpretation of self-determination"; deprecated non-compliance of Portugal with Council's resolution of July 31; stated that action by Portugal to grant amnesty to all persons imprisoned or exiled for advocating self-determination in territories would be "an evidence of its good faith"; called upon all states to comply with a provision in July 31 resolution concerning military or other assistance which could be used for "repression" of territories; requested Secretary-General to continue his efforts, and to report to Council by June 1, 1964.

December 16. Assembly adopted resolution on special training programs for territories under Portuguese administration, drawing attention of member states to possibilities of obtaining assistance from United Nations technical cooperation programs in order to provide refugees from Portuguese territories who reside within their borders with more facilities for secondary, vocational and technical education; repeated its request to Portugal to cooperate in implementing special training program for inhabitants of territories under its administration.

South West Africa

May 10. Special Committee of 24 recommended that General Assembly establish an effective "United Nations presence" in South West Africa and consider any attempt by South Africa to annex the territory "an act of aggression." Committee also drew attention of Security Council to "critical situation" in South West Africa as "a serious threat to international peace and security."

November 13. General Assembly adopted three resolutions on South West Africa.

First resolution condemned Government of South Africa for its "persistent refusal" to cooperate with United Nations; considered that any attempt to annex part or whole of territory of South West Africa constituted "an act of aggression"; urged states to refrain from supplying arms, military equipment or petroleum to South Africa; requested Secretary-General to ask South Africa to state its decision on appointment of United Nations Technical Assistance Resident Representative and on an effective "United Nations presence" in South West Africa; asked Special Committee of 24 to consider implications of activities of mining and other international companies having assets in South West Africa, in order to assess their economic and political influence and their mode of operation.

Second resolution dealt with question of special educational and training programs for South West Africans. Assembly requested member states, in particular South Africa, to facilitate travel of South West Africans who seek to take advantage of such programs.

In third resolution, Assembly called attention of petitioners to report of Special Committee of 24, report of Secretary-General on special educational and training programs for South West Africans, and resolutions adopted by Assembly at its eighteenth session.

December 17. General Assembly condemned South Africa for its refusal to cooperate with United Nations and requested Security Council to consider critical situation prevailing in South West Africa.

Malta

May 10. Special Committee of 24 adopted resolution inviting United Kingdom to hold conference to consider question of independence and holding of elections and recommending that Assembly invite administering power to set earliest possible date for attainment of independence by Malta.

December 11. Assembly congratulated Governments of Malta and United Kingdom and noted that Territory would attain independence not later than May 31, 1964.

Southern Rhodesia

June 20. Special Committee of 24 decided to draw attention of Security Council to deterioration of "explosive situation" in territory; recommended that situation be considered at special session of Assembly "if developments necessitate and circumstances warrant" it; called upon United Kingdom to hold constitutional conference and to declare it would not transfer powers of sovereignty to any government under 1961 constitution.

October 14. General Assembly invited United Kingdom not to transfer to Southern Rhodesia, as at present governed, any of powers or attributes of sovereignty, but to await establishment of government fully representative of all inhabitants; not to transfer armed forces and aircraft to Southern Rhodesia; and to put into effect Assembly's resolutions on territory.

November 6. Assembly called on United Kingdom not to accede to request of present minority Government of Southern Rhodesia for independence until majority rule, based on universal adult suffrage, was established; invited United Kingdom to hold constitutional conference "without delay" with view to making arrangements for independence, including fixing of earliest possible date for independence; requested Secretary-General to continue to lend his good offices to promote conciliation in the territory.

Aden

July 16. Special Committee of 24 adopted resolution deeply regretting refusal of United Kingdom Government to cooperate with Subcommittee on Aden, particularly its refusal to let subcommittee go to territory. Other provisions of resolution concerned military base in Aden, right of people to self-determination and independence, restrictive laws and acts of repression, holding of elections, and establishment of "United Nations presence."

December 11. General Assembly, endorsing action and recommendations of Special Committee of 24, adopted resolution in which, among other things, it considered maintenance of military base in Aden as "prejudicial" to security of region and therefore its removal was "desirable." Assembly called on United Kingdom to repeal "restrictive" laws, release political prisoners, allow return of those exiled because of political activities, and cease all "repressive" action against people of territory, in particular "military expeditions and bombing of villages"; asked United Kingdom to take steps leading to formation of representative government in Aden following general elections; requested consultations concerning "United Nations presence" before and during elections; recommended that conversations be opened be-

tween government resulting from elections and administering authority to fix date for independence and transfer of power.

December 16. Assembly urged United Kingdom to take measures which would be most effective to secure "immediate release" of nationalist leaders and trade unionists in Aden, and to end all acts of deportation of residents of Aden.

Fiji

July 19. Special Committee of 24 adopted resolution on right of people of Fiji to self-determination and independence, on working out of new constitution, holding of elections, transfer of power and integration of Fiji communities.

December 11. Endorsing action of Special Committee, General Assembly invited United Kingdom to work out with people of territory a new constitution providing for free elections and creation of representative institutions, to take steps for transfer of power and to endeavor, with cooperation of Fiji people, to achieve political, economic and social integration of various communities.

Basutoland, Bechuanaland and Swaziland

July 26. Special Committee of 24 adopted resolution on return of land to indigenous inhabitants, convening of conference and holding of elections, study of measures to guarantee independence and territorial integrity, possible establishment of United Nations observation teams, and increased assistance to territories. Resolution also called upon South Africa to declare it would not attempt to annex or encroach upon the three territories.

December 11. Assembly requested "immediate" convening of constitutional conference for each of the three territories, leading to general elections and independence; requested United Kingdom to take "immediate" steps to return all lands taken from indigenous inhabitants; "solemnly" warned Government of South Africa that any attempt to "annex or encroach upon" territorial integrity of territories would be considered "an act of aggression"; requested economic, financial and technical assistance through United Nations programs.

Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland

July 27. Special Committee of 24 adopted resolution on Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland noting "with appreciation" decision to dissolve Central African Federation in accord with wishes of peoples and requesting United Kingdom, in consultation with elected government, to fix earliest date for accession to independence of the two territories.

Northern Rhodesia

December 11. Assembly noted "with satisfaction" that elections for new Legislative Council would be held in January 1964 and requested United Kingdom, in consultation with newly elected government, to fix date for independence of territory.

Nyasaland

December 11. Assembly congratulated Nyasaland and United Kingdom on steps taken to achieve aims set out in Declaration on granting of independence to colonial countries and peoples, and noted "with satisfaction" that territory would attain independence not later than July 6, 1964.

Gambia

September 13. Special Committee of 24 adopted resolution declaring provisions of general assembly resolution 1514 (XV) (Declaration on granting of independence to colonial countries and peoples) "must be applied to Gambia without delay" and inviting administering power (United Kingdom) to comply.

British Guiana

October 8. Special Committee of 24 adopted report submitted by its Subcommittee on British Guiana, which recommended, *inter alia*, that United Kingdom Government be invited to do its utmost so that British Guiana should achieve independence as soon as possible without any conditions or reservations in accordance with paragraph 5 of resolution 1514 (XV).

December 11. Assembly called upon United Kingdom to fix an independence date "without delay."

Question of Oman

December 11. General Assembly, on recommendation of Fourth Committee, decided to set up an *ad hoc* committee of five member states to examine question of Oman and called on all parties concerned to cooperate with committee, "including facilitating visits to the area."

LEGAL QUESTIONS

Treaties and Multilateral Conventions

March 4-April 22. United Nations Conference on Consular Relations. Drew up and adopted Vienna Convention on Consular Relations, and two optional protocols, one on acquisition of nationality and the other on compulsory settlement of disputes.

March 8. Protocol for Limiting and Regulating Cultivation of Poppy Plant, Production of, International and Wholesale Trade in, and Use of Opium came into force.

May 6-July 12. At its fifteenth session, International Law Commission adopted provisional draft articles on essential validity, duration and termination of treaties as part of its continuing work on law of treaties. Commission also considered question of participation of new states in multilateral conventions concluded under League of Nations auspices, and agreed that General Assembly appeared to be entitled to designate an organ of United Nations to "assume and fulfil" powers formerly exercised by Council of League under participation clauses of treaties in question.

July 1 and December 27. International Coffee Agreement, 1962, entered provisionally into force on July 1, and definitively into force on December 27, 1963.

August 4. Agreement establishing African Development Bank signed at Khartoum. Deposited with Secretary-General on September 9.

November 18. General Assembly decided that it was appropriate organ of United Nations to exercise power conferred by multilateral treaties of a technical and non-political nature on Council of League of Nations to invite states to accede to those treaties. Assembly also requested Secretary-General to invite each state, not otherwise entitled, which is a member of United Nations or specialized agencies, or party to Statute of International Court of Justice, or has been designated for this purpose by Assembly to accede to treaties in question, after consultations with parties and appropriate organs of United Nations and specialized agencies as to whether those treaties are in force, have been superseded or require modification.

International Court of Justice

October 3. Declaration by Uganda, accepting compulsory jurisdiction of International Court of Justice in conformity with Article 36, paragraph 2, of Court's Statute, received at United Nations.

October 21. General Assembly, meeting simultaneously with Security Council, elected following judges to International Court of Justice for nine-year term beginning February 5, 1964: Sir Gerald

Fitzmaurice (United Kingdom), Isaac Forster (Senegal), André Gros (France), Luis Padilla Nervo (Mexico) and Muhammad Zafrulla Khan (Pakistan).

November 27. Declaration by United Kingdom, accepting compulsory jurisdiction of International Court in conformity with Article 36, paragraph 2, of Court's Statute and replacing United Kingdom's previous declaration of November 26, 1958, received at United Nations.

December 2. International Court of Justice decided by 10 votes to 5 that it could not adjudicate on merits of claim of Cameroon in case concerning Northern Cameroons (Cameroons v. United Kingdom).

Court held that there was dispute about interpretation and application of trusteeship agreement but that that treaty was no longer in force. Consequently, there could be no opportunity for future act of interpretation or application in accordance with any judgment Court might render. Whether or not at moment application was filed by Cameroon there was justification in Court to adjudicate upon dispute, circumstances had since rendered any adjudication devoid of purpose.

Future Work of International Law Commission

November 18. Assembly approved program of International Law Commission for 1964. Recommended that Commission continue to work on codification and development of law of treaties; state responsibility; succession of states and governments; special missions; and relations between states and intergovernmental organizations.

Friendly Relations and Cooperation among States

December 16. General Assembly adopted resolution on principles of international law concerning friendly relations and cooperation among states in accordance with United Nations Charter. Resolution provided for special committee to study and report its conclusions and recommendations concerning four principles of international law: repudiation of threat or use of force, peaceful settlement of international disputes, non-intervention in domestic affairs and sovereign equality of states.

In another resolution, Assembly stated its belief that "an important contribution" to peaceful settlement of disputes and prevention of such disputes could be made by providing for impartial fact-finding within framework of international organizations and in bilateral and multilateral conventions; called for study of methods of fact-finding in international relations, to include question of "feasibility and desirability" of establishing special body, or of entrusting to an existing organization fact-finding responsibilities complementary to exist-

ing arrangements and without prejudice to right of parties to dispute to seek other peaceful means of settlement. Special committee set up by Assembly to study four principles of international law was requested to include this question in its deliberations. Assembly invited member states to submit their views to Secretary-General for study and report.

Technical Assistance and International Law

December 16. General Assembly adopted three resolutions on technical assistance to promote teaching and wider dissemination of international law. First resolution established special committee composed of six member states to draw up practical plan and proposals. Committee was to take into account views and suggestions of member states and international organizations as well as suggestions made by Secretary-General relating to proclamation of United Nations decade of international law and to an initial program of assistance and exchange.

Second resolution dealt with extent to which programs designed to strengthen application of international law could be implemented within framework of expanded program of technical assistance or financed under regular United Nations program of technical assistance.

In third resolution, Assembly asked UNESCO to collect information from member countries on training in international law. Other provisions called for widening of cultural exchanges and offers of fellowships by member states and dissemination of information by Secretary-General on topics dealing with legal problems under study by United Nations. Assembly also invited member states, international and national organizations and individuals to make voluntary contributions to United Nations technical assistance programs to promote teaching, study, dissemination and wider appreciation of international law.

ADMINISTRATIVE AND BUDGETARY QUESTIONS

January 29-March 29. Second session of Working Group on Examination of Administrative and Budgetary Procedures of United Nations, established by General Assembly resolution 1620 (XV) of April 21, 1961, with increased membership as provided for in resolution 1854 B (XVII) of December 19, 1962. Studied special methods for financing peace-keeping operations of United Nations involving heavy expenditures, and situation arising from non-payment of arrears to these operations.

May 14-June 27. General Assembly, Fourth Special Session. Affirmed general principles to serve as guidelines for sharing costs of future peace-keeping operations involving heavy expenditures, among them that financing of such operations was collective responsibility of all members. Appropriated \$9.5 million for United Nations Emergency Force for period July 1-December 31, 1963 and \$33 million for United Nations Operation in Congo for same period, on basis of *ad hoc* formula of apportionment of costs among developed and developing countries. Appealed to members to pay their arrears to UNEF and ONUC accounts and requested Secretary-General to consult with them on appropriate arrangements within letter and spirit of Charter, including possibility of payment by instalment. Requested consultations on possible United Nations Peace Fund which would accept gifts from individuals and organizations as well as member states. Extended sale period of United Nations Bonds until December 31, 1963. Continued its 21-member working group on United Nations administrative and budgetary procedures.

June 27. It was announced that United Nations had repaid in full loans totalling \$11,227,453 made in 1957 by eleven governments to finance clearing of Suez Canal.

October 18. General Assembly authorized appropriation of up to \$18.2 million for ONUC from January 1 to June 30, 1964. Approved an *ad hoc* formula of apportionment of costs.

November 11. Assembly approved various measures for expediting its work.

December 11. Assembly adopted resolution on supplementary estimates for year 1963, decreasing original budget appropriation for that year by \$1,032,500. The budget for 1963 was therefore established at \$92,876,550.

Adopted resolution on scale of assessments for apportionment of United Nations expenses in 1964, decreasing rates of assessment for Czechoslovakia and Hungary, and setting rates for seven new member states admitted during 1962-1963: Algeria, Burundi, Jamaica, Kuwait, Rwanda, Trinidad and Tobago, and Uganda.

Adopted resolution on geographical distribution of United Nations staff, especially in relation to representation of member countries within the various regions, particularly at senior professional levels.

December 12. Assembly decided to authorize installation of electrical voting system in main Assembly Hall at United Nations Headquarters on experimental basis.

December 17. Assembly adopted gross budget of \$101,327,600 for United Nations expenditures in 1964, established Working Capital

Fund at \$40 million for same year and extended Secretary-General's authority to sell United Nations bonds until December 31, 1964.

Decided to appropriate \$17,750,000 for UNEF operations in 1964. Approved an *ad hoc* formula for apportionment of costs.

Contributed to funds for International School, including amount for its permanent accommodations.

December 31. United Nations bonds purchased to date by 62 countries totalled \$151,451,544.

UNITED NATIONS INFORMATION CENTERS AND OFFICES

(As of March 1, 1963)

[Countries not specified under "Services to" are covered by Headquarters]

Accra. United Nations Information Center

Liberia and Maxwell Roads
(Post Office Box 2339)

Accra, Ghana.

Services to: Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Nigeria, and Sierra Leone.

Addis Ababa. United Nations Information Office

Economic Commission for Africa

Adua Square

(Post Office Box 3001)

Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Services to: Ethiopia.

Asunción. United Nations Information Center

Calle Chile No. 430

(Post Office Box 1107)

Asunción, Paraguay.

Services to: Paraguay.

Athens. United Nations Information Center

25-A Jan Smuts Street

Athens 134, Greece.

Services to: Cyprus, Greece, Israel, and Turkey.

Baghdad. United Nations Information Center

27/39 Arasa No. 100, Alwiyah

(Post Office Box 2048)

Baghdad, Iraq.

Services to: Iraq.

Bangkok. United Nations Information Service

Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East

Sala Santitham

Bangkok, Thailand.

Services to: Cambodia, Laos, Federation of Malaya, Singapore, Thailand, and Viet-Nam.

Beirut. United Nations Information Center

Rue 65, Off rue Sadat

(Post Office Box 4656)

Beirut, Lebanon.

Services to: Jordan, Lebanon, and Syria.

Belgrade. United Nations Information Center

1, Trg. Marksa i Engelsa, Br. 1

(Post Office Box 157)

Belgrade, Yugoslavia.

Services to: Albania and Yugoslavia.

Bogotá. United Nations Information Center

Calle 19, No. 7-30, 7° Piso

(Post Office Box 65-67)

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Buenos Aires. United Nations Information Center

Charcas 684, 3° Piso

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Sharia El Shams

Imm. Tagher

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45 Alfred House Gardens
(Post Office Box 1505)
Colombo, Ceylon.
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37 H. C. Andersen's Boulevard
Copenhagen V, Denmark.
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Barclays Bank Building
Acacia Avenue
(Post Office Box 9224)
Dar-es-Salaam, Tanganyika.
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Djakarta. United Nations Information Center
76 Kebon Sirih
Djakarta, Indonesia.
Services to: Indonesia.

Geneva. United Nations Information Service
European Office of the United Nations
Palais des Nations
Geneva, Switzerland.
Services to: Austria, Bulgaria, Germany, Hungary, Poland, Romania, and Switzerland.

Kabul. United Nations Information Center
Shah Mahmoud Ghazi Square
(Post Office Box 5)
Kabul, Afghanistan.
Services to: Afghanistan.

Karachi. United Nations Information Center

Havelock Road
(Post Office Box 349, G.P.O.)
Karachi 1, Pakistan.
Services to: Pakistan.

Lima. United Nations Information Center
Parque Mariscal Caceres No. 18
(Post Office Box 4480)
Lima, Peru.
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Lomé. United Nations Information Center
Rue Albert Sarraut, Corner Avenue de Gaulle
(Post Office Box 911)
Lomé, Togo.
Services to: Togo.

London. United Nations Information Center
14/15 Stratford Place
London, W.1., England.
Services to: Ireland, Netherlands, and United Kingdom and dependencies (except those listed under Accra, Bangkok, Dar-es-Salaam, and Port-of-Spain Centers).

Manila. United Nations Information Center
World Health Organization Building
Taft Avenue, corner United Nations Avenue
(Post Office Box 2149)
Manila, Philippines.
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Mexico City. United Nations Information Center
Hamburgo 63, 3° Piso
Mexico 6, D.F., Mexico.
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24 Broad Street
(Post Office Box 274)
Monrovia, Liberia.
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15 Hohlovski Pereulok, Apartment 36
Moscow, U.S.S.R.
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Paris 7, France.
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% Island Products Ltd. Building
Champion Parade
Port Moresby, Papua, New Guinea.
Services to: Trust Territory of New Guinea and Papua.

Port-of-Spain. United Nations Information Center
19 Keate Street
(Post Office Box 812)
Port-of-Spain, Trinidad, W.I.
Services to: British Guiana, British Honduras, Caribbean area, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago.

Prague. United Nations Information Center
Panska 5
Prague II, Czechoslovakia.
Services to: Czechoslovakia.

Rabat. United Nations Information Center
2 rue Lieutenant Revel
(Post Office Box 524)
Rabat, Morocco.
Services to: Morocco.

Rangoon. United Nations Information Center
24-B Manawhari Road
Rangoon, Burma.
Services to: Burma.

Rio de Janeiro. United Nations Information Center
Rua Mexico 11, Sala 1502
(Post Office Box 1750)
Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.
Services to: Brazil.

Rome. United Nations Information Center
Palazzetto Venezia
Piazza San Marco 51
Rome, Italy.
Services to: Italy.

San Salvador. United Nations Information Center
Edificio de la Gran Logia Cuscatlan
8-a Avenida Sur, No. 126
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San Salvador, El Salvador.
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Santiago. United Nations Information Service
Economic Commission for Latin America
Avenida Providencia 871
Santiago, Chile.
Services to: Chile.

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44 Martin Place
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Sydney, Australia.
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44 rue Romain Desfosses

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Tananarive, Madagascar.

Services to: Madagascar.

Teheran. United Nations Information Center

Kh. Takhte-Jamshid

12 kh. Bandar Pahlavi

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Teheran, Iran.

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New Ohtemachi Building, Room

411/412

4, 2-chome, Ohtemachi

Chiyoda-ku

Tokyo, Japan.

Services to: Japan.

Tunis. United Nations Information Center

61 Fared Hached

(Post Office Box 863)

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Washington 6, D.C., U.S.A.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ACC	Administrative Committee on Coordination	IMCO	Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization
CCPI	Consultative Committee for Public Information	Internat.	international
Commn.	Commission	IRO	International Refugee Organization
COSPAR	Committee on Space Research	ITO	International Trade Organization
Cttee.	Committee	ITU	International Telecommunication Union
ECA	Economic Commission for Africa	NGO's	Non-Governmental Organizations
ECAFE	Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East	ONUC	United Nations Operation in the Congo
ECE	Economic Commission for Europe	OTC	Organization for Trade Co-operation
ECLA	Economic Commission for Latin America	SC	Security Council
ECOSOC	Economic and Social Council	TAB	Technical Assistance Board
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations	TAC	Technical Assistance Committee
GA	General Assembly	TC	Trusteeship Council
GATT	General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade	UK	United Kingdom
ICAO	International Civil Aviation Organization	UN	United Nations
ICJ	International Court of Justice	UNCURK	United Nations Commission for the Unification and Rehabilitation of Korea
IFC	International Finance Corporation	UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
ILC	International Law Commission	UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
ILO	International Labour Organisation		

UNKRA	United Nations Korean Reconstruction Agency	UNSCCUR	United Nations Scientific Conference on the Conservation and Utilization of Resources
UNREF	United Nations Refugee Fund	UPU	Universal Postal Union
UNRPR	United Nations Relief for Palestine Refugees	US	United States
UNRRA	United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration	USSR	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
UNRWA	United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East	WHO	World Health Organization
UNSCOB	United Nations Special Committee on the Balkans	WMO	World Meteorological Organization

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